

THE CHARACTER OF SECOND-LANGUAGE READING SKILLS
IN ENGLISH OF CANARESE SECONDARY-SCHOOL PUPILS,
RELATED TO TEACHING RECEIVED

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ABSTRACT

This thesis uses tests, qualitatively analysed, to characterise the English of a group of Kannada-speaking Indian secondary-school pupils. This is then compared with the intended teaching, as shown by the syllabus and methodology, and the actual teaching, from lesson transcripts. Discrepancies are noted, and an explanation is attempted. The thesis is divided into five parts:

Part I gives an account of the place and teaching of English in India, with special reference to Karnataka.

Part II rationalises pupils' responses to an initial test, and gives the results of:

- i. a further reading test, of lexical matching strategies
- ii. a translation test, scored for occurrence of specified lexis and structure

Part III analyses five lesson transcripts, two of structure and three of comprehension lessons, with respect to the length and character of pupil and teacher contributions

Part IV reports the results of a further series of tests, of structure, vocabulary and comprehension produced to confirm and amplify the findings of parts II and III.

Part V draws conclusions about the character of pupils' learning, and its relationship to the teaching; specifically that pupil learning reflects not teaching or simply exposure, but actual language needs, and uses language acquisition strategies which are not those the teacher expects. Modifications to the teaching are suggested on account of this.

The methodology is 'illuminative' in that although paper-and-pencil tests are used as the main source of data, the analysis is not for 'number right', but an attempt to discover underlying strategies.

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DECLARATION

This thesis is my own work and composition

D.J. CARROLL.
1st September 1982.

[Signed in trip copy.]

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CHAPTER ITHE AIMS AND ORIGINS OF THIS STUDY1.1 INTRODUCTORY

This is a study of the analysis and assessment of the written English, both productive and receptive, of native speakers of Kannada, studying English in the vernacular-medium secondary school system in Karnataka state, South India. It is based on two kinds of data; first, the analysis of test scripts worked by the pupils: and second, the study of lesson transcripts. The purpose of the first type of data was to attempt to characterise, rather than simply measure the level of, pupils' attainment; the aim of the second was to attempt to find some relationship between pupil behaviour, as characterised in the test, and teacher input - both the input explicitly defined in the syllabus and methodology, and the adaptations to this arising from teachers modifying the original to fit local conditions, and from the incidental information the teachers give the pupils about what they expect them to do.

The subject matter is English as a second language; this is a subject perhaps uniquely complex as a pedagogic problem; therefore, although the study is primarily in and of Education, as a discipline, it

has to draw heavily on applied linguistics in its discussion of theoretical issues.

The use of tests in this study is not 'norm-referenced' or 'criterion-referenced'; it is essentially exploratory. Total score is less important than information about pupils' strategies; and for this purpose, an informative answer is one that by promoting a certain kind of error, exposes pupils' learning strategies, intermediate steps in the learning process, and so on. Thus the combination of a large number of similar items to give statistical support for conclusions is less important than careful plotting of diverse errors; and 'number right' scores are worth less than errors that suggest hypotheses. For this reason, although statistical thinking, in the sense of arranging one's data to expose contrasts, variations, etc., is used, there is no extensive reliance on statistical tests and the like.

1.2 HOW THIS STUDY AROSE

In 1978 I was appointed as "Specialist in Tests and Examinations", at the Regional Institute of English, Bangalore, South India. My role was to improve and where possible reform examinations, and provide help and advice for headmasters and teachers wishing to make use of tests. I knew very little about the Indian school system; but I was repeatedly warned, both before

and after taking up post, not to expect standards to be as high as the official syllabus would lead one to expect.

This was borne out by the low pass mark on the SSLC paper, based on the syllabus (see 2.3 below), and the fact that even so, the proportion of pupils passing was quite low. Furthermore, I had doubts, given the very high proportion of this examination that was based on seen texts, and the general quality of the items, about how stringent the SSLC was.

Therefore, I set out to find out for myself how things were. I began with three questions:

- i. is the level of attainment in English really much lower than it should be?
- ii. what is the character of pupils' attainment? Does it appear to suggest any change in overall strategy, or more likely, tactics, ways of teaching particular skills or topics?
- iii. if attainment really is low, and some change in tactics appears to be indicated, is it possible to relate this to the teaching, so that we can suggest what activities need reform, and what shape the reform could take?

The third question is particularly difficult and contentious. Natural language is an integrated skill, and short-term effects of teaching are frequently misleading. We are not, therefore, interested in the simple pattern of what the teacher does, and how the pupil responds. What we need to find is a correlation between something that the teacher does repeatedly, and broad categories of pupil response - a suggestion that the pupils' entire language competence is being moulded in a certain way.

1.3 CONSIDERATIONS OF RESEARCH DESIGN

Such a study as this could not be planned using the methodology of the designed experiment, for several reasons:

- i. the basic task is hypothesis-generation rather than hypothesis testing; therefore a methodology of discovery is more suitable than one of confirmation.
- ii. the type of data, and particularly the associations, being sought do not readily support probabilistic testing - the effects are, for example, much too long-term to be closely associated with a certain kind of teaching in a one-upon-one relationship assessable after a limited number of lessons.

- iii. it is quite impossible given the limitations on choice of field, and number of subjects that can be handled, to control for more than the most minimal set of intervening variables. Although the teaching all follows a single syllabus and set of textbooks, the demographic variables are such that to control for even the most prominent would demand a sample far beyond the scope of Indian, and hence manual, data-handling techniques.

Therefore, it was necessary to work within some kind of ethnographic information gathering paradigm, attempting to illuminate the chosen field, rather than to set up general conclusions about the teaching/learning process. Essentially, therefore, the methodology adopted followed the 'illuminative' paradigm described by Parlett and Hamilton (1972). It has three main stages:

- i. investigators observe. The aim of this stage is to locate common incidents, recurring trends, and issues that are raised frequently by the members of the group being studied.
- ii. further inquiry. Salient topics from the first stage are subjected to 'sustained

and intensive enquiry'. At this stage, the methodology tends to move away from observation, and use questionnaires, small experiments, and other such means to confirm tentative hypotheses.

- iii. attempts to explain. This stage consists in seeking general principles, underlying patterns of cause and effect; and putting the findings in a larger context.

These stages are broadly followed in this study. It should be noted, however, that the stages 'overlap and interrelate functionally' - that is to say, it is possible to move freely from one stage to another depending upon the need for data, or explanations - and that stress is laid on tailoring the output of the study to the needs of the recipients - in this case, that can be taken to mean that the conclusions focus on possible defects in the teaching, and the results they have; and an attempt is made to suggest ways in which these can be tackled.

There are however limitations imposed on the study by conditions in India:

- i. choice of field. India is very large; even Karnataka, the state in which Bangalore is located, is larger than England; and communications are difficult.

It was not therefore possible to sample a wide range of schools. Further, the amount of co-operation one could expect from many schools was limited. If I wanted careful administration of the tests, and no illicit help from the teacher, or uncontrolled copying, I had either to go to the school myself, or include my material in a school examination.

ii. the data processing facilities available in India were very limited. Since I could not collect the data for later processing, but had to have the results before going on, I had to keep the numbers to be assessed within tight limits. I thought I could handle, in the detail that was required, not more than about 100 pupils' work.

iii. choice of data gathering techniques.

'Illuminative' works stress a variety of data gathering techniques, and especially observation and interviews. These techniques in particular were difficult to use. Teachers were unwilling to say anything to anyone who might feed it back to the authorities; and very few would let me observe the lessons. The pupils were

unable to communicate with me in English, and in any case were unwilling to, for reasons of propriety, as much as anything.

1.4 THE DESIGN AS IMPLEMENTED

For reasons given above, all the work was carried out in a single school, Government Girls' High School, Malleswaram. Malleswaram is a middle-class district of Bangalore with few slums, and no major problems. The school itself was housed in a former mansion. The mansion itself housed the administration, and a few classrooms; the large compound housed the rest, plus ample space for drill, games, etc. Classrooms were of adequate size, and with sufficient furniture, including a blackboard in each. Some, but not all, had electric light. Because of the size of the compound, classrooms were well spread out, and did not significantly interfere with each other. The staff was adequate, and trained to post-graduate level. Because one of the two ex-trainees of the RIE on the staff was the headmistress (the other was teaching Kannada-medium Social Studies) the school had a good relationship with the RIE, and was used by it for teaching practice, and also for project work in developing materials and methodology.

Two sections were taken, out of the six in Std. IX. All the pupils were, of course, girls. They had been allocated randomly to sections within the standard.

Std. VII public examination results confirm this - the mean for one class was 49.34%; the mean for the other was 47.89%. One section contained 50 pupils, the other 49 (although the full complement of 99 was seldom achieved; often, fewer than 90 were present). These two sections were used by the RIE for teaching practice, but not for project work. They had their own regular teachers, who took the English lessons when there was no teaching practice, or if the TP times did not coincide with the timetabled English lessons. Therefore, the pupils got slightly more English than the five periods a week timetabled; but this is not unusual; many classes in this and other schools had extra periods outside the timetable for tuition, BED teaching, etc.

Where possible, the tests were administered as part of a school examination; otherwise, they were administered during a timetabled English period, and invigilated by myself. All marking and item-analysis was done by me, except where translation from the Kannada was needed, when RIE lecturers, native speakers of Kannada, helped.

1.5 THE USE OF TESTS

As has been noted above, there were significant limitations on the range of data gathering devices available. This has led to the study being built

around the use of tests; not for measurement, but to investigate and characterise.

For much of this century, the most dominant use of tests has been measurement. Measurement was defined by Campbell (1940) as the 'assignment of numerals to objects or events according to rules'. More recent writers have accepted this, although some, Guilford (1971), for example, have chosen to substitute 'numbers' for 'numerals'. According to Guilford, the properties of numbers most important to measurement are: identity, rank order and additivity - that is, that each number can be distinguished from every other, and placed in a rank order relative to them with no ties and no doubts about order; and that the four basic operations of arithmetic can be performed on them, giving results that are internally consistent.

Inevitably, therefore, there has been some preoccupation with numerical scores, the properties of numerical scores, and how to assess their accuracy, and to improve it. At the same time, there has been acceptance that this is not the only possible paradigm, although mainly rather in passing. Ghiselli (1964), for example acknowledges that, in addition to measurement, there is classification; but he does not discuss it in a book concerned with measurement. There has also been awareness, at a low level but continuing,

that number of correct answers does not contain all the information that might be useful to us. Sigel (1963) argued that failure to analyse errors on intelligence tests limits understanding of the processes underlying test performance. Sigel found no relationship between type of error made by testee and total test score - although there was consistency within individuals as to type of error made - suggesting 'types' of performance, each with a range of ability within them - which implies that differences in approach which may be significant are not tapped by the tests as at present designed. Donaldson (1963) made just such a study, using 'Moray House' tests, and pupils from an Edinburgh Merchant Company school. Most emphasis amongst measurement experts, however, has been on the extraction of the same kind of information from wrong answers as from right - e.g., by assigning scoring weights to the multiple-choice alternatives (Davis and Fifer, 1959) and facet design in Raven's matrices as a systematic ordering procedure for distractors as to degree of correctness (Guttman and Schlesinger, 1967). Jacobs and Vandeventer (1968) took up the idea of facet design, and used it in a study which found that proportion of 'superior' distractors (i.e. those differing from the correct answer in fewest facets) was moderately effective in extracting information - meaning that it correlated with number correct, and distinguished between groups.

In earlier years, the preoccupation with measurement was less marked, perhaps because there was less confidence about what was to be measured. Binet and Simon (1916), for example began their investigation not by trying to rank children, but rather by trying to find out what tasks were characteristically performed successfully by children of certain ages (pp. 91-109). They also (p. 122) stressed that slowness of reply could demand several possible interpretations - and that these could vary widely in the construction one puts on the ability of the child. Later on (pp. 189-195) they make the distinction, in the case of presentation to the children of pictures, between replies by enumeration of the people and objects seen in the picture, replies by description, 'where the characteristics of the people and the nature of the things are now pointed out', and replies by interpretation where the 'nature of the people is simply indicated either by a suggesting word or by comments, and often there is an element of emotion'. They stress that this is a hierarchy of important differences. In the work of Piaget, also, there is a clear division of development into qualitative, rather than quantitative stages.

In subject areas, the use of different methods to solve the same problem is amply documented in Krutetskii (1976). Major use is made of a system of experimental problems such that 'an analysis of the

solutions to them would enable us to understand how the distinctiveness of certain pupils' mental activity differs from that of the less capable pupils, to reveal individual features of pupils' mental activity in problem solving' (p.89). As with Piaget, Krutetskii referred primarily to developmental features, the measurement of changes over time by repeated testing of the same individuals, or by testing of different but similar individuals at different stages in their development. However, he does not hesitate to apply this process to the discovery of qualitative, rather than quantitative, differences between 'gifted' and 'ungifted' pupils.

1.6 ERROR ANALYSIS

Within the domain of language teaching, psycholinguistics has a general procedure for accounting for why and how errors come about; this is called Error Analysis. The general character of this procedure is described in Corder (1974). First, he distinguishes between 'mistakes and lapses', which are of no real interest to the language teacher, because readily correctable by the learner if his attention is drawn to them (and so apparently related more to stress, indecision and fatigue than to imperfect competence) and 'true' errors, which have remedial implications of some kind for the teacher (p. 123). Corder also (p. 131) makes a distinction between different stages of error:

- i. presystematic - 'random' error arising from ignorance of the rule system
- ii. systematic - arising from the use of the wrong rule or system
- iii. post-systematic - where the learner has learned the rule, but for some reason applies it inconsistently.

He notes that learners can be at different stages with respect to different elements of the language.

The essential process suggested by Corder (p. 129) for recognising and identifying errors is one of attempting to produce a plausible reconstruction, in both the target language and the learner's mother tongue. He stresses consultation with the learner, in an attempt to interpret the learner's intentions. Therefore, (p. 126) there are three essential stages in error analysis - recognition, description, and explanation.

Therefore, there is established in psycholinguistics a procedure for studying the way in which a learner goes about constructing his language system. It is likely, therefore, that the findings of this process have something to contribute to this study. Nemser (1971) discusses the concept of transition from learner who does not know the language to one who does by means of an approximate system which he describes as 'the

deviant linguistic system actually employed by the learner in attempting to utilise the target language'. He assumes that there will be a succession of these systems, varying with the successive stages of proficiency of the learner. Nemser also distinguishes three major types of factor in the creation of error. Two of these, language transfer and intralingual interference, he characterises as internal to the learner. The third, which he describes as 'socio-linguistic', he takes to subsume all the different factors relating to different settings for language use - and therefore including, most important for the present purpose, instructional systems.

Corder (1974) also acknowledges the systematicity of learner's approximations, under the term 'inter-languages'; and he likewise has three basic categories of error.

- i. transfer errors - which arise when the learner, in default of a rule, takes the most similar available rule; i.e., from the mother tongue.
- ii. analogical errors - when the learner has not discovered the precise set of categories where the rule applies, he will use it in a way which is analogous to what he does know.

- iii. teaching-induced errors - arising from methods or materials used in teaching.

There is some agreement, therefore, about the existence of errors that come, not from within the learner in some way, but from some intervention, presumably for the best of motives, by the teacher.

Richards (1972) notes that in English as a foreign language, where the language is not learned through use, there is a special problem about error; pupils are being approximated to a model, which is normally the fluent native speaker, either British or American. There is no local tendency to pidginise or creolise, no concept of deviancy; and all deviations are therefore mistakes, to be eradicated. In such a situation, there is a tendency to look on error as not being especially interesting, but merely to be eradicated as soon as possible. There is not likely to be much interest in how it arose, or what led to it. Selinker (1972) quoted a case where, as a result of being exposed to textbook drills containing only 'he', pupils whose mother tongue was Serbo-Croatian manifested difficulty in making the he/she distinction, although this distinction is present both in English and Serbo-Croatian. It seems clear, therefore, that this is a teaching-induced failure.

1.7 HEURISTIC TESTING

There is therefore precedent for a paradigm shift within testing, comparable to that required in moving from 'agricultural-botanical' to 'illuminative' evaluation - and indeed directly analogous to it. This would involve moving from considering tests as devices for measurement, to tests as heuristic - finding things out, rather than measuring them. This would involve:

- i. sacrificing precision to informativeness. Items should be constructed with an eye, not to objectivity or ease of marking, not even to the item necessarily being unambiguous to the pupil; but rather, in Corder's (1974) terms, 'error provoking' (as distinct from 'error avoiding', as for example free, unguided production is). That is to say, they should be constructed to give the maximum number of chances for the pupil to reveal his thought processes and strategies.
- ii. number of items should not in itself be considered a virtue. We are not necessarily interested in the kind of security that comes from numbers, preferring to have the opportunity to analyse in

detail items that are carefully chosen to be revealing. If necessary, a full test of what has been discovered can be produced at a later stage.

- iii. facility value and discrimination are not important. An item is not necessarily bad if no pupil passes it at all - in fact, it is probably one of the more revealing items, because failed attempts are easier to analyse than successful ones, in general. Forced-choice items should only be used if there is a good reason for wanting to offer pupils a fixed set of alternatives, as in general forcing students to choose is likely to distort their responses in unpredictable ways.

A test or series of tests produced according to this model cannot give us the kind of evidence obtainable from normal tests, about the general level of attainment within a group. It can, however, give information about what strategies are being adopted, and how prevalent particular strategies and difficulties are within the whole group. Thus, the focus of attention is shifted away from the group and the members of it, and towards building up a picture of the ways in which they handle certain tasks. The outcome to be expected

is not a list of scores on broad-based skills, but a list of strategies, and estimates of their prevalence within the group.

Therefore, this study is in this respect firmly within the domain of error analysis. The specific focus, however, is not on the learner's grammar construction, so much as on the teaching-induced error.

PART I - BACKGROUND INFORMATION

INTRODUCTION

This section contains an assortment of background information, about the place of English in India, the teaching methodology, methods of control and training, syllabus and examinations, with some analysis and comment. At the end, some conclusions are drawn about the likely weak spots, and points requiring further investigation.

CHAPTER 2: BACKGROUND

2.1 THE PLACE OF ENGLISH IN INDIA

India has been independent since 1947, which is long enough for English to have settled down to a long-term place in her culture. Linguistic diversity is enshrined in the Indian constitution; the main languages are accepted for official purposes, the states are organised as far as possible within linguistic boundaries, and the right to an education in one's mother tongue - so far as it is the language of the state - is guaranteed. English was not one of the 'official' languages of India, presumably because it was seen as the language of the colonialist. It is, however, the mother tongue of a sizeable minority - in the censuses, about 5% of the population admit to a native-level competence in English - and has a major part in the overall life of India.

Since independence there has been difficulty over finding a lingua franca for India. Many attempts have been made to give Hindi that status, as the language of by far the largest single group of Indians; but non-Hindi-speakers have resisted it, as putting them at a disadvantage in their own country. Therefore, in spite of persistent government efforts, it has not come about, and for some purposes, English is a 'lingua franca', especially in the south of India. This has now been recognised by giving English the status of 'associate official language'.

The areas where English is still extensively used are:

- (i) Education English is still the medium of much higher education, especially at post-graduate level, and a 'library language' for much of vernacular-medium higher education. There are also large numbers of English-medium or dual Hindi-English medium schools for the rich, those who do not speak the State language, etc.
- (ii) Commerce English is used by commercial enterprises where they have business across state boundaries, in preference to Hindi, except for the Hindi-speaking states; it has prestige in business circles, and indeed may be the only lingua franca at a business gathering.
- (iii) Nationally Transferable Services the police, railways, forest service, administrative service and the like, being centrally recruited and nationally transferable, make extensive use of English, although there is some government pressure to increase the use of Hindi.
- (iv) The Law the legal code is still written in English, and although efforts are being made to translate it, the linguistic diversity

will make it far from easy. Higher courts still use English as a matter of course; lower courts use the local language.

- (v) Parliament The National and State Assemblies still make extensive use of English. In Parliament, English and Hindi are the two languages used; in the states, the local language and English.
- (vi) Government Business In the South, the state governments still use English as their official language; there have been efforts to change, but they are held up by shortage of people who can use the local language, and by shortage of equipment, e.g., typewriters; also by the problem of large numbers of people, many of them influential, who do not speak the local language. However, this will no doubt change.

English is therefore a valuable language for the elite, and for those who aspire to join or serve the elite. It has been called a 'language of opportunity'.

2.2 THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN VERNACULAR-MEDIUM SCHOOLS IN KARNATAKA

This special status of English has created problems for the authorities. Nobody wishes to encourage English, but at the same time its value has to be acknowledged. Therefore, the central government has developed what is known as the 'three-language formula'. Each child has the right to an education in his or her mother-tongue, where it is the state language, or in Sanskrit. He or she then has to learn two other languages - English, and one other Indian language - Hindi in non-Hindi-speaking areas, or some other language for Hindi-speakers.

The problems are especially severe in the south, where the linguistic diversity is much more marked than it is in the north, and the languages are a separate group from the Hindi/Urdu Group. The aim of the Karnataka state government has been that everyone should be educated in Kannada, which is the local language; but they have in parallel English-medium streams for some muslims, although these can also be educated in Urdu, and those from other states, who do not speak Kannada. Attempts to abolish non-Kannada education have recently led to riots. In the cities, these English-medium streams are very common. In addition, private education is commonly in English-medium; although the state government would like to abolish this.

The pattern of education is at present '7+3+2' - that is, seven years of primary education, starting when the child is five, three of secondary school, and two of higher secondary. There is a public examination at the end of primary school, one at the end of secondary school (the Secondary School Leaving Certificate, or SSLC) and one at the end of Higher Secondary (often called Matriculation). English is taught in all vernacular-medium schools in Karnataka from standard five (i.e., the fifth year of schooling). It is a compulsory subject, taken by all pupils, and it is taught for five forty-minute periods a week, up to Std. 10.

Government schooling is universally available, and free; but it is not universally taken up. The middle

classes send their children to private schools; most of the population cannot afford to have potential earners committed to school beyond Std 7 at the latest.

Therefore, Government Secondary schools tend to contain a few middle-class pupils, very few genuinely poor pupils, and a large proportion of children of, e.g., shopkeepers, artisans, auto-rickshaw drivers, class IV (i.e., menial) government officers and the like.

2.3 THE SECONDARY SCHOOL LEAVING CERTIFICATE

The examination for which pupils in Secondary schools in Karnataka are prepared is called the Secondary School Leaving Certificate, or SSLC. It is a state government responsibility, and varies from state to state. The Karnataka SSLC English examination consists of two papers, each of $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours, and each for 100 marks. There is a model set of papers, and each year's paper is devised to follow the model. A set of sample papers is given in Appendix 1.

2.3.1 Analysis

Paper 1 is text-based; all the questions relate to the set texts for Std X in various ways. It consists of:

One extended answer (30 lines): recount a major incident from one of the set texts (Choice of three) 15 marks

Two paragraph answers (15 lines): recount a
(perhaps slightly less) major incident from one
of the set texts (choice of 2 from 4) each $7\frac{1}{2}$ marks

Five short answers (5 lines): recount a short
incident (choice of 3 from 5 prose, 2 from
3 poetry) each 3 marks

Ten short answer items each about two texts
(texts given; quoted from set books):
'comprehension-like' questions (1 text prose,
1 text poetry) each 3 marks

Quote ten lines of poetry (two poems; short
excerpts with specified beginning and ending
points) 10 marks

Five 'annotation' questions. Two lines of text
are quoted; two questions are asked (depending
on knowledge of larger context or excerpt). No
choice each 2 marks

Ten 'vocabulary' items (a text is quoted from
the set book; all items relate to this text)
as follows:

four multiple-choice 'meanings' each 1 mark

four 'synonyms' each 1 mark

two 'antonyms' each 1 mark

punctuate a text quoted from a set book 5 marks

Paper 2 covers 'general English'. It is 'unseen'. It
consists of:

Writing:

One 1-page essay - stock topics, such as 'a great man', 'a building in your town', 'the sport you like best' 15 marks

One half-page letter - stock topics, such as 'imagine that your uncle has sent you some money; write to thank him' or 'ask your friend if you can come and stay with him for a few days' 10 marks

Translation:

English to first language; a five-line text covering a reasonable range of lexical and structural items 10 marks

Reading Comprehension:

five short-answer questions on a text. 'Gist' questions about important points in the text each 2 marks

Vocabulary:

Five blank-filling items - select words from a list of ten each 2 marks

Grammar:

Four items supplying questions in a dialogue where answers are given each 1 mark

Four items re-writing direct as reported speech each 1 mark

Two items re-writing reported as direct speech each 2 marks

Four items combining sentences in specified ways	each 1 mark
Four items supplying correct voice and tense for a given verb in context	each 1 mark
Five items supplying correct tense for a given verb in context	each 2 marks
Three items putting verbs in negative form	each 1 mark
Four items filling blanks in a passage with suitable prepositions	each 1 mark
Four items supplying the correct degree of comparison for adjectives given	each 1 mark
Four items involving inserting articles	each 1 mark

Pass mark in the examination is 35%, with a pass on both papers required.

2.4 THE CONTROL OF TEACHING BY THE STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

South India is a large area, and communications are imperfect. Schools are not especially well-equipped, although there are normally qualified teachers, and also textbooks, blackboards and chalk. Central control over what is taught, and how, is considered very important to the realisation of the government's egalitarian objectives - ideally to bring the education of the poor up to the level of the rich; if necessary, by the other means.

However, there are limitations on the amount of central control that is possible. Effectively, the only sanction available to the state government is the final examination - if pupils aim to pass, they must follow the syllabus. Thus, the aim has been to give the teachers as much support as possible, to teach in the recommended style. This has taken the form of making the textbooks as explicit as possible, and, at least for the first three years of English, designing teacher's handbooks. Evidence from the field, however, suggests that the teacher's handbooks are little used, and those for standards eight to ten have never been produced; instead, the aim has been to put everything the teacher needs into the pupil's book.

Therefore, the state textbook bureau produces, for every year of formal schooling, a set of textbooks. As the examination is partly text-based, all schools working for the SSLC use the same set of books; although the more prosperous and better schools may supplement them with other books. In English, there are two main textbooks for each year, detailed and non-detailed texts.

Each detailed text contains about twenty lessons, each consisting of three parts. The first part contains two or more structures, and up to twenty lexical items to be introduced to the pupils, together with suggestions for situations, and sentences giving contexts where they might be found; and, since beyond standard seven, the teacher's book is the same as the pupil's, suggestions

for teaching. Part two is a text, for detailed study. It is normally narrative, either an account of modern heroism or genius, or a mythological story, or some such, and the language is controlled to be within the syllabus range, and with an emphasis on the new language items introduced in the lesson. Part three contains a variety of exercises, covering both comprehension of the set text, and the language items introduced in the lesson. In addition to these lessons, the detailed text contains a number of poems for the pupils to memorise with annotations.

The non-detailed textbook does not contain any structural patterns to be taught, but it does contain new vocabulary, specific provision being made for such items in the syllabus, so that the syllabus need not be changed, simply because there is a change of reader. The book is made up of a series mainly of longer texts than those found in the detailed book, both prose and poetry, structurally controlled 'within the syllabus range of the previous six months or with a vocabulary extension of up to 15 percent of extra words necessary for the stories and topics included in the reader'. Thus, it is less strictly controlled than the detailed text.

We may therefore think of the working year being given over to the lessons - called 'portions' in India - at the rate of about a week and a half to each lesson, including its associated element of non-detailed text,

composition classes, and poetry, as demanded by the syllabus and examination. Each working week could be said to be divided roughly equally between the five areas to be covered - presentation of structure and vocabulary, study of detailed text, working of exercises, study of non-detailed text, and composition classes - with poetry fitted in as and when it is possible.

CHAPTER 3 : SYLLABUS AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 THE ENGLISH SYLLABUS

Appendix 2 contains the current English syllabus for Karnataka state, for the first three years of English, standards V-VII. All the syllabuses at present in use in South India derive from the same model. All have the same basic elements and organisation; the order and number of the items of language, and some of the vocabulary chosen, are the major differences.

For the purposes of the syllabus, the English language is divided up into structures, additional material (structure words such as prepositions, which are to be given less emphasis than structural patterns), formulas (such as, e.g., 'Good morning'), and vocabulary. In the final year of English, standard ten, the only new items dealt with explicitly are vocabulary; no new structural patterns, etc., are introduced - rather, old ones are practised, 'activated'. The remaining years are all treated in substantially the same way - each has its quota of structural patterns, additional material, formulas and vocabulary; and the method of introducing these does not vary from year to year of the course, although the number of structural patterns is greater in years four and five than it is in the earlier years. Thus, by the end of year five, the pupils are expected to have mastered about 250 structures, and 2000 lexical items.

This syllabus has two levels of generality. The first is a statement of aims in terms of levels of attainment for the four skills of understanding, speaking, reading and writing. These are described in fairly general terms, as a set of activities or tasks that the pupils should be able to perform, within the limitations of the grammatical and lexical content of the syllabus. This part of the syllabus emphasises such terms as 'listen and understand', 'retell simple stories in his own words', 'carry on short simple conversations on familiar topics', 'all meaningful reading should involve recognition followed by interpretation', 'should be able to use the structural words and sentence patterns in the syllabus'. Thus it is made clear that the aim of the syllabus is that the pupils should be able to listen, speak, read and write to an acceptable level.

The second level is that of the means by which this is to be achieved. This can be looked at in two ways, content and methodology. Content is determined in purely linguistic terms; it is a list of words and structures to be taught. This is accompanied by examples in the form of sentences which give a context for the structural items; for the lexical items, no context is given.

Thus, there is a possibility of divorce between the two levels of the syllabus, at the one level, the general aims are stated in terms of a range of language-using

activities that it is considered desirable that the pupils should be able to perform. At the other, the means to this end are seen as being statable in terms of a number of language items. It is quite clear that these two are not the same thing; that the means to the end will not lead automatically to its realisation, in that knowledge of language items is not the same thing as getting and using a skill - and that some kind of a link has to be made.

Therefore, great emphasis is put on the teaching methodology, as the way in which the two sets of objectives are connected, and the linguistically-stated objectives are made to come to life as performance objectives.

3.2 TEACHING METHODOLOGY

The teaching methodology has therefore two main objectives; first, to introduce the new language items to the pupils in some way; and second, to activate them through some kind of language using activities. The methodology actually chosen throughout southern India, including Karnataka state is what is described there as 'structural-oral-situational', and in much of the rest of the world as 'audio-lingual'. This method, and the reasoning behind it, are described fully in Rivers, 1964. Its main elements are:

- (i) the primacy of spoken over written language, and of reception over production. New items have to be heard before they are read; heard and read before they are spoken; and heard, read and spoken before they are written. (Rivers, 1964: p. 21).
- (ii) the importance of habit formation in the learning of language. This is reflected in the extensive use of repetition and substitution devices in the teaching, in preference to a more limited number of attempts by the pupils, at least in the early stages, to make use of the items for some purpose of their own. During such a lesson, pauses for thought are wasted time, and in order to minimise them there has to be something easy for the pupils to say - something they can read out, or generate by some simple process. (op cit, p. 19).
- (iii) grammar construction by inductive reasoning, rather than statement of grammatical rules. This is reflected in the situational presentation of structural words and patterns in a sentence, a process which is repeated in order to lead to inductive reasoning out of rules, as being the closest approximation to 'native' grammar formation. (op. cit, p. 21)
- (iv) meanings can only be learned through use in the context of a matrix of associations with the culture in which the language developed and is used; they cannot be translated directly from one language to another. (op. cit p. 22)

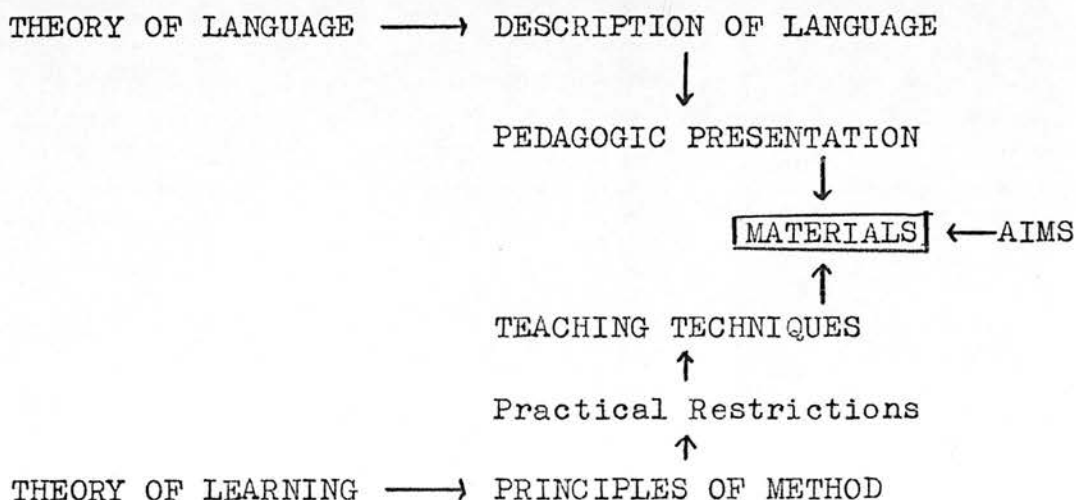
There are further, implicit assumptions, arising as corollaries of these, or resulting necessarily from them:

- (v) learning to mastery level, however it takes place in natural language acquisition, is in fact possible in a fairly short space of time. This assumption is embodied in the fact that, in the course of a lesson - a few days, up to a week at most - a particular language item is taken from first oral introduction to use, receptively and productively, in extended text and exercises.

- (vi) time not spent using English is time that is wasted. This follows from the emphasis on habit-formation by a process of repetition, and from the rejection of translation as a tool. What matters most to the approach is that pupils should be hearing and speaking English; in the early stages of language learning, few pupils are capable of doing this, and therefore they need devices which make it easier for them to function in English; the risk is that the support destroys the purposefulness of the message (op. cit p. 149)
- (vii) all items encountered in any activity that is not explicitly introduction of new language should be known in advance; language of texts should be controlled so that what takes place is 'activation' of existing, known language, rather than even 'peripheral' exposure (i.e., in places where it is not crucial to meaning) to new items, which have not yet been introduced.
- (viii) pupils should not be allowed to make mistakes; making mistakes does not help the formation of correct habits, and may indeed lead to the formation of incorrect ones. (op. cit p. 20).

3.3 THE UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS AND THEORETICAL CONTEXT OF THE METHODOLOGY AND SYLLABUS

Howatt (1974: p. 5) draws attention to the two essential pillars of a language teaching course:



In both of these, theory of learning and theory of language, the methodology adopted in south India has clearly traceable antecedents. The syllabus of the type used in Karnataka is of a type common throughout the world of English teaching throughout the 1950's and 1960's. The underlying theory of language is 'structuralist' in the sense that it follows the principles of the group of linguists associated with the ideas set out by Bloomfield in his book 'Language' (1933). It emphasises the need to study the elements of language not in isolation, but as parts of a systemic whole. Linguists of this school worked on the assumption that grammatical categories should be defined in terms of distribution, rather than meaning.

In such an analysis, every linguistic unit below the sentence has a 'characteristic' distribution - it is restricted in a characteristic way with respect to the contexts in which it can occur. Fries (1952) analyses English into four major form-classes, and fifteen groups of 'function words'. Because the analysis is based on distributional criteria, it is in one sense more 'objective' than the traditional grammars, which depended to a very large extent upon the grammarian's insight about which grammatical category a word belonged to, and what function a grammatical category performed.

Linguists of this school rejected subjective perceptions of meaning, as has been noted, what Fries (1954) for example called 'social-cultural' meaning, in

favour of the study of meaning as a function of the sets in which the word occurred, and its relations with other elements in the language. However, even Fries was prepared to admit that 'linguistic meaning without social-cultural meaning constitutes ... mere verbalism'. Therefore, although the structural patterns were seen as being of vital importance, they were not considered to be enough by themselves. Therefore, another tradition of the study of language was drawn on, that of Sapir and Whorf, of linguistic relativity. It was Sapir's view that 'No two languages are sufficiently similar to be considered as representing the same social reality. The worlds in which different societies live are distinct worlds, not merely the same world with different labels attached (in Mandelbaum, (Ed), 1958). Whorf (1956) tried to show from his studies of a variety of languages how different languages classify things differently - for example, the difference between a 'timeless' language (Hopi) and a 'temporal' language (English).

In the second of Howatt's areas, learning theory, this methodology is largely based upon behaviourist principles. This can be characterised by Skinner, who tried (Skinner, 1957) to assimilate verbal behaviour to human behaviour as a whole: 'We have no reason to assume ... that verbal behaviour differs in any fundamental respect from non-verbal behaviour' - by which Skinner meant stimulus-response associations that depend upon reinforcement. 'Classical' conditioning,

of the type developed by Pavlov, was considered overly simplistic; instead, 'instrumental learning', or the conditioning of operant behaviour, was invoked. This implies that, when the behaviour occurs, it is rewarded or reinforced. Thus, 'habit' was seen as the primary source of language behaviour, and the strength of the habit as dependent on number and amount of reinforcing potential (Mowrer, 1960).

Between them, these three major areas account for a great deal of the syllabus and methodology described above. There are other areas of influence, notably the gestalt psychologists; their stress on the importance of the whole pattern led to practice with situations, use of complete sentences, - and also, because they stressed organisation in perception, to less importance being given to word meaning, and more to the repetition of complete patterns - on the grounds that only from complete patterns can meaning become plain. These, however, are the dominant strains. Variety of techniques arose primarily not from any ideological commitment to it, but from an acknowledgement that in spite of the 'greater efficiency' of endless drills and memorisation, the benefits to students' morale of some variety were considerable (see Rivers, 1964, p. 58).

3.4 SUBSEQUENT THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENTS

Not all writers in the field, however, follow this line of thought. As early as 1966, Newmark noted that students who could form grammatical sentences could not in practice always achieve what they wanted in the target language; because although their sentences were grammatical, they were not appropriate - they were sentences which were not in fact used by natives speaking that language. Hymes (1971) referred to this as lack of 'communicative competence' - linguistic theory, Hymes says, is concerned with an ideal speaker-listener, in a perfectly homogeneous speech community. This, he says, neglects most of the problems that face the actual speaker-listener, in an actual communicative situation. For Hymes, while grammatical competence is one of the factors in being able to communicate successfully, there are others. Of the four that Hymes lists, the first, whether something is formally possible, roughly equated with grammatical competence; in addition, he notes feasibility - whether something, even if put in a grammatically correct sentence, is in fact within our limited powers of linguistic processing; appropriateness to context - a sentence can be grammatically possible, and feasible, but inappropriate; and finally, whether it actually occurs - whether or not something is in fact done.

In addition to these observations, based essentially on the learner, there have been developments in the study of linguistics, which have tended to show up some defects in the structuralist scheme of things. First, Chomsky (1957), noted that the structure that was being dealt with was in some sense superficial - it represented merely the surface manifestations of a deeper, underlying structure. Thus, one can have several 'surface' representations of the same 'deep' structure - and different 'deep' structures being realised by the same 'surface' structure. This has led to a different type of grammar being developed from that which was produced by structural means.

In addition, the prominence of structure or grammar amongst the rule sets which govern linguistic behaviour is now seen to have been overstated. There are also rule sets governing the organisation of sentences or utterances and their grouping into a textual unity. One example of this is the increasing importance ascribed to the cohesive function of various linguistic forms. This can affect word choice at a number of levels, and serves to bind the text together as a single whole (Hasan, 1968). The rules for cohesion are a cause of considerable difficulty for non-native learners of a language such as English; and they are too complex to be readily formulated as a teachable set.

Again, the rules of rhetorical coherence (Widdowson, 1974), which govern the way in which utterances are

related, in terms of their use in performing acts of communication, have been the subject of growing interest. Coherence of this kind explains how utterances which have no explicit connection, no connection of propositional or structural content, and not necessarily any elements of grammatical cohesion, can still be interpreted by a fluent native as having an appropriate relationship. The rules relating to coherence are not grammatical; and it is quite likely that the production of coherent utterances will in fact be a quite different matter from the production of complete sentences. They are in fact, in Widdowson's (1978) terms, 'rules of use', as distinct from the rules for forming correct sentences, which he describes as 'rules of usage'.

There has in fact been a re-evaluation of the role of purpose in language. First, Austin (1962) has drawn attention to the purposeful character of language - that, for example, it is not correct to say that a sentence 'is' a statement - rather that it 'is used for making' a statement. This notion of words as a means for doing things is useful for making possible a description of the basic functions of verbal communication, and the ways in which language is used to realise these purposes. Halliday (in Brumfit and Johnson, 1979) takes the process one step further, and defines language as 'meaning potential'. He attempts to relate language as purpose-directed activity to language as described linguistically, by a series of 'semantic networks' which

are the 'input' to the grammar - language items are used to 'realise' meaning selections. Thus, language is seen (Halliday, 1978, p. 192) as a resource, first and foremost. The linguistic system (op. cit. p. 72) is a sociolinguistic system, and language structure interacts with purpose; its structure (op. cit. p. 52) is determined by the functions for which it is used.

Thus, linguists have been concentrating much of their attention on explaining how interlocutors communicate accurately and efficiently. Much of this has been encapsulated in what Grice (1967) called the 'co-operative principle'. Interlocutors co-operate in order to achieve successful communication. There are, according to Grice, four maxims which speakers normally try to satisfy:

- (i) maxim of quantity - make your contribution as informative as is required, but not more so
- (ii) maxim of quality - try to make your contribution one that is true
- (iii) maxim of relation - try to make your contribution relevant
- (iv) maxim of manner - try to avoid obscurity, ambiguity, wordiness and disorderliness

This co-operative principle has been extended to account for 'indirect' speech acts. In an indirect speech act, the literal meaning is usually less important than some other layer of meaning; both are utilised, but the ultimate interest is in the indirect layer of meaning. Indirect speech acts are very common; their

proper use is governed by what Searle (1975) called 'felicity conditions' - for making a request properly, for example, there are four felicity conditions:

- (i) A must believe B has the ability to do what is requested
- (ii) A must have the desire that B should do it
- (iii) believe that B will do it if requested
- (iv) have good reasons for making the request

The methods by which an indirect request can be made correspond closely with these; and it is presumed that what the listener does is to

- (i) compute the direct meaning of the utterance
- (ii) decide if this was what is intended
- (iii) if not, use the co-operative principle to compute the indirect meaning
- (iv) act on the basis of the indirect meaning.

Finally, there has been a change in emphasis in the study of second language learning, away from language as habit, and towards a more active place for the learner in the process, and a more diverse type of process.

Vygotski (1962) made a distinction between 'explicit' and 'implicit' knowledge of language; and suggested that 'implicit' knowledge was the kind that children had of their first language; whereas 'explicit' knowledge was the kind one had of a foreign language. Later researchers have taken up this distinction, but have changed the emphasis. Bialystok, (1979), for example, suggests that there are various ways in which the teaching biases second and foreign language learning

towards the 'explicit'; and that in fact both kinds are present in any language learning. Krashen (1976), using his own terminology, suggests that the 'monitor' - 'explicit' language learning - can only operate when conditions of time permit.

Therefore, there has been increasing emphasis on the presence in the learner of a mechanism for language learning - what Chomsky called the language acquisition device - and the need to engage this device actively in both first and second language learning. Krashen (1981) suggests that there are in fact two processes, analogous to the kinds of knowledge described above - language acquisition and language learning. Acquisition, in these terms, 'is very similar to the process children use in acquiring first and second languages'. This is the system which, in Krashen's view, is dominant in the production of an utterance; the learned system, on the other hand, is available to the performer only as, in Krashen's terms, a 'monitor' - when an utterance has been initiated by the acquired system, the learned system can monitor its production, and modify it in the direction of greater correctness.

For normal language use, the acquired system is of greater importance than the learned system. According to Krashen, successful acquisition is a matter of meaningful interaction in the target language - that is, the acquired system develops when interlocutors are concerned more with the message to be conveyed than the

form of the utterance. It may also be marked by a stable order of acquisition of linguistic structures across learners (Brown, 1973). Explicit learning, the type which goes into the monitor, on the other hand, is helped by explicit error correction, and pattern practice (Krashen and Seliger, 1975); and there is apparently no invariant order of acquisition (Krashen 1978).

3.5 INNOVATIONS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

As a result of these theoretical developments, there have been a number of innovations in language teaching. Following Howatt (above) we can divide these into two main areas. First, there are solutions that have concentrated on the restatement of the teaching content; and second, there are those solutions that have concentrated on the place of the learner, and matching the methodology to his needs.

In the area of syllabus design, Wilkins (1976) rejects the grammatical syllabus on the grounds that:

- (i) it focusses on forms - and hence seldom on meanings, or on the importance or otherwise of the form. Form is taught as form, and 'because it is there' rather than because it is important;
- (ii) it focusses on the grammatical system, and neglects the total syntactic structure in which it tends to occur;
- (iii) it fails to account for the way in which the grammatical pattern is used as an utterance.

Therefore, there tends to be a contrast between the way in which the language is experienced in the classroom and that in which it is known to be used in society. To overcome this problem, Wilkins suggests a syllabus that takes as its starting point the desired communicative capacity - that is to say, one which sets out to organise language, not in terms of how speakers express themselves, or when and where they use the language, but what it is they communicate through the language. Therefore, such a syllabus has, not grammatical categories pure and simple, but categories related to the meaning which is to be conveyed - for example, 'time' has such sub-categories as 'point of time', 'duration', 'time relations', 'frequency' and 'sequence'. Other categories are such as 'quantity', 'space' and 'relational meaning'. In addition, there are 'categories of modal meaning' - such as 'scale of certainty' and 'scale of commitment'; and 'categories of communicative function' such as 'judgement and evaluation', 'suasion' and 'argument'.

Wilkins' view was that course design using such a syllabus as this implied a different kind of organisation from the purely 'linear' one adopted in the structural syllabus; any grammatical category has to be presented in the context of a whole sentence, and that will inevitably contain grammatical features which are not the immediate teaching objective. He therefore suggested a cyclical approach, a course designed to

expand progressively as the learner's repertoire increases. Instead of learning to do more things over time, he essentially learns instead to do things in a progressively more sophisticated fashion. The implications of this change of view for teaching methodology, however, are limited. Wilkins suggests that there should be more emphasis on the use of 'authentic' materials; and that the interactional nature of language will lead to more emphasis on role playing; but apart from that, the teaching methodology was left to develop organically; to arise from the syllabus, rather than be designed.

Other approaches to course design, mostly at higher levels, have tried to put emphasis on features that have a wider range than merely the sentence; that is, discourse-level features. Widdowson (1978), for example, makes a number of suggestions for teaching at the level of communicative abilities; while not removing the emphasis on linguistic skills, he suggests that they should be taught in the context of an integrated approach, which puts stress on both 'usage' and 'use'. He suggests a number of activities designed to do just this.

3.6 METHODOLOGICAL INNOVATIONS

Other experts have aimed at producing solutions which stress the learner's own ability to acquire language. Prabhu (1979) for example suggests that to teach usage,

and then subsequently use, may be uneconomic. This suggestion was subsequently taken up by Regional Institute of English (1979b, c, 1980a, b, c, d) as the basis of an experimental teaching project for which, in order to emphasise the purely methodological implications, no linguistic syllabus was adopted or subsequently devised. According to Prabhu and Carroll (1980), the methodology adopted was purely one of organised tasks, in which the stress was on the pupils' ability to perform the tasks, and the language was seen, at least by teachers and pupils, if not necessarily by course designers, as secondary.

Allwright (1976) suggested that, if communication is the aim, then it should be the major element in the teaching process; we are, in Allwright's view, teaching communication via language, rather than language for communication. Allwright suggests that if the language teacher's management activities in the classroom are directed solely at involving the learners in solving communication problems in the target language, then the language learning will take care of itself. He therefore suggests that it is important that the teacher should avoid unwarranted interference in the teaching process - that is, a 'minimal' teaching strategy. In a later paper, Allwright (1978) suggests further that there are activities that pupils need to practise which in fact they can only engage in if the teacher adopts a minimal strategy - for example, discussing what they

want to do, and how they should go about it can only be undertaken if the teacher acts in a service capacity, helping overcome obstacles, rather than actively organising the learning experience.

Finally, Brumfit (1979) suggests that the most important effect of the preoccupation with communication, rather than language, has been a reversal of the traditional teaching sequence of 'present item - drill - practise in context'; and its replacement by a sequence in which the student begins by attempting to communicate as far as he can with his existing linguistic resources - if only so that he becomes aware of his need for new language items - followed by the teacher presenting the language items shown to be essential for effective communication, which are then drilled if necessary. He suggests that this is necessary because any teaching sequence in which the teacher presents language items to the student will involve him in a process of selection; and that it is best if the selection is done in a way which takes account of what the learner knows, and needs to know.

3.7 GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

It will be clear from the foregoing that there are ways in which the model on which the Karnataka syllabus and methodology are based is incomplete. First, in its model of language, there are suggestions that the grammatical breakdown of language into structural and

lexical items is not exhaustive, in that there are other rules which have to be taken into account, rules of use. Second, it is clear that there are difficulties about the way in which the analysis on which the syllabus is based, being a matter of frequency of occurrence, relates to the purpose-directed character of language use. Third, it may be that in teaching pupils to generate grammatical sentences, this course does not teach them to select the appropriate one from amongst a variety of alternative formulations. In the methodological area, there seems to be reason to suppose that the behaviourist model is inadequate in accounting for the full range of language use - there are automatic responses, but they are not a majority of language functions. Then the role of the learner, as former of habit, is out of tune with contemporary thought, which emphasises the learner as acquisition device. Further, habit-formation does not give the learner the kind of practice that Allwright believes he needs, in getting things done; the emphasis, as with structural linguistics, is on the surface level, the form of the production rather than its purpose.

Therefore, in the further investigation of this approach, some weight needs to be given to the investigation of these areas:

- (i) is there evidence that the learners are not fully, or adequately engaged in the learning operation? If so, does this appear to have deleterious effects?

- (ii) is it possible to find evidence of a deficit in the area of purposeful use of language? If so, how far does this go?
- (iii) is there evidence of a cumulative deficit? That, for example, the initial lack of engagement or awareness of the purposeful character of language actually hampers pupils in their subsequent attempts to learn more?
- (iv) is there evidence of pupils producing grammatical sentences which are not appropriate? Or appropriate sentences which are not grammatical?
- (v) does the focus on language, as Prabhu (1980) predicts, in fact make it impossible for teachers to make naturalistic use of language in their situations, or can they overcome it?
- (vi) given what Krashen (1981) says about the apparent success of all methods with some people, and the reasons for this, can we in fact point to evidence of success; and perhaps find reasons for it?

These then are some of the points that come out of the first stage in the investigation, and which will be followed up in the remainder of it, in the lesson transcripts and the tests.



PART II - THE INITIAL INVESTIGATIONCHAPTER IVAN EXPLORATORY TEST4.1 INTRODUCTORY

Chapters 2 and 3 discussed the background, both theoretical and institutional, within which the teaching took place, and the aims, methods and expectations prevailing. In order to check this against the real level of pupil performance, test data were needed.

4.2 THE "DAOUD" TEST

A reading comprehension test was chosen for this first test, because, being skills-based, reading comprehension is neutral with respect to the method of language introduction. Listening is not tested in Karnataka, and so a listening test could not be used.

In order to make the experience more familiar to the pupils, the text was taken from a parallel reader in another South Indian state, Andhra Pradesh. Andhra Pradesh borders on Karnataka, participates in the RIESI, and has its books prepared there. It is therefore reasonably comparable in both standards and methodology/materials. So as not to be too difficult,

the text was taken from the reader for the preceding year, Std. VIII.

The subject matter, a story drawn from the remote past, is typical of that found in south Indian English books, for the reasons noted in Chapter 2 above. The text had to be considerably shortened, to make it manageable in a single period, but no major changes were made in the language (ie, text was cut out, rather than being altered, where possible). Thus, the text and language should be of familiar type. The questions, however, were constructed without reference to the original set of questions.

4.3 THE WRITING OF COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS

Following Clark and Clark (1977), comprehension was divided into: comprehension of propositional content (op. cit. : p.45) - whether pupils can arrive at the 'underlying representation' of the surface content of the text - and utilisation (op. cit. : p.87). The questions were therefore divided into two groups, one (the larger) testing propositional content, and the other questions about motivation or purpose.

The items were also divided into a larger group of multiple-choice items, the format chosen as being most suitable to the testing of understanding of the text,

and five short-answer items, 'wh-questions'. This latter block requires a more elaborate answering procedure - first, search for an appropriate answer, whether in the text or in one's judgement/knowledge of the world; then put this answer into a form appropriate to the question asked. This would therefore give additional information about pupils' productive linguistic ability.

In writing the items, Anderson (1972) was followed. If a question is drawn verbatim from the text, or verbatim with only a structural transformation, then it does not necessarily test comprehension, since it can be answered by matching. Therefore, an effective test of pupils' representations of meaning must offer alternative formulations of the original propositional content - a sentence which 'means the same' or a choice of several such. Therefore all the items were designed to be what Anderson (op. cit. : pp. 150-1) calls 'paraphrase', or 'transformed paraphrase' questions - that is, they share no lexical content with the relevant part of the text, and if possible, no structure either.

Decisions about content were judgmental. Understanding of the text involves a grasp of:

- a. the character of the sultan - generous, hospitable, but short tempered (cf. the

punishment of the former chef); and how this creates both danger and an opportunity for the chef.

- b. the finding of the new cook; what Daoud was doing in Penang; and his strengths and weaknesses - and how this sets the scene for the clash.
- c. the role of the crane in the crisis; how Daoud tried to get out of trouble; and how the Sultan reacted.

Fifteen items were produced, ten multiple-choice, and five short-answer. Seven multiple-choice and three short-answer were given over to testing propositional content; and the remainder to assessing pupils' judgement of motivation. These were:

m/c item 8: the text says 'the Sultan was very angry'; pupils have to infer why from the events up to that point.

m/c item 9: Daoud's story is obviously false; pupils must infer why he told this story; and why he might hope it would be accepted.

m/c item 10: it is clear that the Sultan did not believe the story; but although Daoud was not rewarded, neither did he suffer the fate

of the previous cook - so pupils must infer that he was forgiven.

s/a item 4: the answer is not directly given; pupils have to work out that the Sultan preferred to retain Daoud's cooking, rather than punish him - reinforced because he was in future to be watched.

s/a item 5: the reason is given very indirectly - pupils have to grasp the conversational implicature that the Prime Minister is to watch Daoud carefully.

The full text of the test can be found in Appendix 3, pages Ap.45-Ap.49.

4.4 ADMINISTRATION

The test was administered to the two Std IX classes selected as described above (Ch.2). The test was given during a normal English period, and two invigilators were present, to minimise copying and to help pupils where necessary. There was no time pressure.

4.5 RESULTS OF THE SHORT-ANSWER TEST

92 pupils, out of 99, were present for the test. A full statement of results can be found in Appendix 3, parts (iii) and (iv) (pages Ap. 49 - Ap. 58).

The short-answer items were studied first, as being more 'error-provoking'. If there are two stages to answering a 'wh-' question, finding the information, and putting it in the right form for the question, then we have a hierarchy of possible responses:

- a. answer correct in both respects
- b. both form and content show a serious attempt at an answer
- c. form shows a serious attempt to be correct; content is weak.
- d. the essential information is present (probably in the form of a quotation); but there is no attempt to put this in the appropriate form.
- e. the amount quoted from the text, although it may be in part appropriate, is excessive.
- f. the quotation chosen does not contain the essential information.
- g. answer not fitting any category
- h. no response.

Table 4a shows the results tabulated in this way.

TABLE 4.a: RESULTS OF SHORT-ANSWER TEST

Item	a	b	c	frequency		f	g	h
				d	e			
1	3	0	5	39	4	21	0	20
2	1	0	0	6	0	39	3	43
3	0	0	0	7	0	39	0	46
4	0	0	0	0	0	20	2	70
5	0	0	0	9	0	50	0	33

It is noticeable that categories (a) to (c) are almost empty. Therefore there is no indication in this case that Newmark's (1966) prediction that structurally taught pupils will produce formally-correct, but inappropriate, sentences. In this case, structurally-taught pupils are failing to produce the correct structure for the response to common question-types.

On the other hand, there is no evidence of success with communication in spite of poor structural ability. If that were so, then category (d), as well as categories (a) and (b), would be well-filled. This is the case only in item (1), suggesting rather that there is some special feature about item (1), that makes it particularly suitable for the pupils' attempts, than that there is some defect about the remaining four items.

The pupils' main strategy is to quote from the text. This may be a form of regression, because the test is

too difficult; or it may be that this is how the pupils are taught to answer questions. It is used in spite of the fact that only with question 1 is it at all successful.

There is no evidence that 'excessive quotation' (category (e)) is practised by this group, whether as a way to include more than one sentence when in doubt about which is the correct one, or for any other reason. This suggests that pupils are in fact reasonably sure they have the right answer. This is reinforced by the strong association between levels of non-response and quotation; it seems that where a quotation is strongly indicated, non-response is low; and where no quotation is obvious, non-response increases.

There was also variation in the number of different quotations from the text which were offered in response to different items. For item 1, all the 39 pupils in category (d) selected the same response - 'The Prime Minister looked everywhere for a new cook'. For item 3, 27 out of the 39 pupils in category (f) chose all or most of "Your Majesty," said Daoud, "That bird was a crane, and cranes have only one leg". For item 5, 39 of the 50 pupils in category (f) chose 'But from now on the Prime Minister must sit in the kitchen'. The other two items, item 2 and item 4, attracted respectively 17 and 10 different quotations.

Therefore, it is apparently fortuitous that the most commonly-chosen response to item 1 is also the correct answer, in content if not in form. What distinguishes these three commonly-selected quotations from the rest is not meaning, but lexical items found in both item and quotation. In item 1, the lexical items are "look ... for a new cook". In item 3, they are "Daoud ... crane ... have only one leg". In item 5, they are "The Prime Minister ... the kitchen" (in the same sentence). Thus, pupils are matching, not underlying meaning, but surface lexis. In the case of both item 3 and item 5, there are other sentences which could have been quoted, which satisfy the content demands of the question. However, they contain less lexis also found in the question, and therefore are attractive only to the apparently limited number of pupils who process meaning - 7 for item 3, and 9 for item 5.

This hypothesis would be supported by looking at the items where the unanimity was less. The lexical items used in question 2 are widely dispersed throughout the text - 'eat' in line 11, 'crane' in line 19, and line 24 and below; 'whole leg' in line 21. Therefore, it was almost impossible for pupils to select a single sentence on lexical grounds; and only 6 pupils succeeded in finding the correct answer. In item 4, the problem was slightly different. There are in fact no lexical items

in common between the text and the question, except 'sultan' and 'Daoud' - and both of these are so common as to be quite useless for selecting a single sentence. This is reflected in by far the highest rate of non-response found in the whole test.

4.6 RESULTS OF THE MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

Table 4.b gives the item analysis of the multiple-choice part of the test. On the whole, the results were poor. The mean facility was 24.8%, almost exactly what would be expected if pupils used only random guessing. The mean discrimination was .162, which can be compared with a figure quoted by Ingram (1972) for ELBA of .41-.61. This latter figure was obtained with a very different type of student, but is the only one presently available from a published manual. It is much more typical of the levels one would expect to find for reading comprehension. Thus, in purely technical terms the test has failed. However, to quote Dow, Auld and Wilson (1978), 'the fact that some pupils give wrong answers has never been a sufficient reason to delete a portion of the syllabus'. It may be that the test is less at fault than the level of pupil learning.

The detailed answer pattern reveals that, just as there were two types of short-answer item, so there were two types of multiple-choice item. A 'polarised' item is

TABLE 4.b ITEM-ANALYSIS OF THE MULTIPLE-CHOICE

Item	Facility (%)	Discrimination
1	5	-.02
2	16	.15
3	36	.06
4	17	.26
5	21	.20
6	28	.17
7	32	.06
8	25	.24
9	42	.33
10	26	.17

one where one - or possibly - alternatives are very popular, and the others hardly at all. A 'homogeneous' item is one where all the alternatives are of roughly equal popularity. Items 1 and 2 are examples of the former; items 8 and 10 of the latter. If the initial conclusion from the short-answer test, that answers are mainly due to lexical matching, is sustained, we should expect the 'homogeneous' items to be those where either all or none of the alternatives contain significant lexis from the text; and 'polarised' ones to be those where any lexis from the text is concentrated in only one or at most two of the alternatives.

Items 8 and 10, the most 'homogeneous' items, confirm

this, with one inconsistency - item 8, alternative 2. Similarly, in item 1, the most popular alternative is no. 4, which we may attribute to the phrase 'hot temper', which is found in just about the right part of the text to be a suitable answer. However, on the grounds of meaning, it is an absurd answer - nobody likes anybody because of his hot temper. The next most popular alternative, no. 1 - 'was a good cook' - again does not make sense - sultans don't cook - except in terms of lexis from the right part of the text. The two unpopular alternatives, 2 and 3, contain no lexical items drawn from anywhere in the text. However, on grounds of meaning, they are the most plausible answers.

This view is partially supported by consideration of the items which are neither very homogeneous nor very polarised. For example, item 2, alternative 2 is the most popular - and it contains two lexical items from the text, 'ruled ... kingdom'. Item 2 alternative 4, the second most popular, contains one lexical item from the text - 'guests'. In other cases, however, the lexical matching hypothesis seems weaker - item 6, alternative 1 may be arrived at by lexical matching - 'he is a very good cook' with 'his cooking was good' - but, although it is not the right answer, it is true - and so could have been arrived at by checking the truth value of each distractor, and stopping when one was

located that was true. Item 9, alternative 1 is another case of an alternative that was popular, but whose popularity cannot be accounted for by lexis alone.

That there is some other force at work is also confirmed by some of the least popular distractors. Many of them, for example item 7, alternatives 2 and 4, item 4, alternative 4, and item 9, alternative 2, are actually drawn from somewhere in the text; but in spite of this, they are not found frequently. This suggests that either lexical matching is being used as a fall-back strategy when other comprehension strategies fail, or that there is some kind of non-lexical check on plausibility being used (perhaps based on location) - or indeed that both are true, at opposite ends of the scale.

4.7 CONCLUSIONS

The following are the initial conclusions:

- a. the overall level of attainment is far lower than expected, more or less at the chance level on the multiple choice; and on the short answer items, none except the first showing acceptable levels of response on any of the 'acceptable' categories.
- b. the level of non-response is high. This is particularly noticeable on the free response items (where, of course, the pupil who cannot produce an answer is prevented from

concealing this by checking an alternative at random.

- c. the bulk of the responses, to both multiple choice and short answer sections, whether correct or not, appear to be consistent with selection on lexical grounds alone.
- d. this is inconsistent with what we would expect from a teaching methodology which emphasises structure, where a substantial proportion of teaching time is given to structure. If this structure were being effectively learned, we should expect to find a significant proportion of responses that could be justified on structural, rather than lexical, grounds.
- e. in addition to structure not being used to select responses, the short answer section shows very little evidence of any general tendency amongst pupils to correctly-framed responses with incorrect content. In fact, where a response was quoted, attempts to change it at all were very uncommon, even where the result was not an appropriate response to the question.

This suggests a strategy for further investigation:

- a. given that lexical matching is used, its nature and extent must be explored. Can it cope with paraphrase, or synonyms? variations in mood and tense, leading to

changes in verb form? does it work only within sentence boundaries? What other regulating techniques are used - e.g., is there an order effect, whereby the range of text from which the response is chosen reflects the sequence of questions? or a tendency, e.g. to quote the sentence following that with the key lexical items in it? or some kind of 'plausibility' effect, whereby likely quotations are rejected in a way that would suggest a role for meaning?

- b. if the predominance of lexis is restricted to comprehension, then it may be a specific instructional effect, e.g. the result of telling pupils constantly to 'look for the sentence which contains the answer': if, on the other hand, it extends to different types of task - e.g. writing, as well as reading - and to exercises where there is a premium on correctness, then it may well represent a major flaw in the teaching methodology. This therefore has to be investigated .
- c. if lexical strategies are in fact more general than merely an isolated quirk, we have to consider what this apparent failure to respond appropriately can tell us about the relationship between teaching and learning in second-language English. Are the responses found consistent with Rivers' (1964) assertion that

language learning arises from following correct models? or do they suggest that pupils' responses to the teachers' models are not what the teachers expect - do pupils, for example, appear to develop 'interlanguages' - a series of approximations to English which may be made up of simplified forms of, e.g., the English tense system, and which may in fact contain novel elements and usages not found in the models.

When a general picture has been built up of the character of the learning of English within the group as a whole, the focus of attention will be transferred to the classroom; lesson transcripts will be studied in an attempt to relate the input, teaching, and the product, learning; and in the final part, some remedial action will be proposed.

CHAPTER VTHE "COCONUT TREES" TEST

The "coconut trees" test was designed to explore the range of techniques used by pupils in matching lexis between text and question; to explore in more detail the results of the first test.

5.1 METHOD

A very simple text was taken, far below the level of those found in the class textbooks. Six questions were constructed to explore pupils' use of lexical matching techniques:

1. What kind of countries do coconut trees grow in?

This item draws pupils' attention to the first sentence of the text. It contains three lexical items also found in sentence 1 - 'coconut trees', 'grow', and 'countries'. It is therefore assumed that all pupils will locate the correct sentence; pupils who use lexical matching will quote the whole sentence, to get the full range of common lexis; whereas those who use meaning will quote only the second half.

2. What are the leaves used for?

'Leaves' occurs only once in the text; and for pupils who are not strongly influenced by sequence, 'used' may function as a distractor - it occurs twice at a later stage in the text. Pupils using meaning will

perform a more complex task than in item 1, because word order of the sentence in the text has to be reversed in order to make it an appropriate answer to the question - from 'roofs are made ...' to '...for making roofs'.

3. What part of the tree produces food?

For pupils using meaning, this question is easier than item 2, because the sentence does not have to be modified, but merely cropped. For the student using lexical matching, however, it is more difficult. There is 'produces', instead of 'gives us'; 'produces' points to a later part of the text. 'Part of the tree' is also a potential distractor - this time to sentence 3. We may therefore expect four different kinds of attempt:

- i. giving the correct sentence (entire)
 - ii. giving sentence 3
 - iii. combining sentence 3 and sentence 4
 - iv. giving one of the 'produce' sentences
- in rough order of closeness to the correct answer.

4. How is the oil used?

Pupils who are using meaning will have little difficulty in relating this item to either sentence 6 or sentence 7 (one of which describes classes of use; the other examples). Lexical matchers will probably try to use 'oil' and 'used' as a guide. 'Oil' is found in sentences 4 and 5; 'use' in sentences 5 and 6. Therefore, sentence 5 should be the most attractive; and there should be a

tendency to quote more than one sentence; although both sentence 4 and sentence 6 may be chosen, lexical matchers will have no reason to select sentence 7.

5. What things can be made from the oil?

Of the four possible lexical items in this item, 'made' is interesting in that it occurs only in the form 'making' - but in the correct sentence. Thus, the lexical matcher who is sensitive to transformations will have a much better chance than others. 'Things' will be the most conspicuous lexical item, because it occurs once only, whereas the others appear either more than once, or as transformations. Therefore, we may expect pupils to be misled by 'things', or to have severe difficulty in choosing how much of the text to quote, from the beginning of sentence five to the end.

6. Why is the coconut tree very useful?

For pupils using meaning, this question is of summary type. For pupils using lexical matching with no other strategy, it suggests the first sentence. Pupils who do not use meaning, but are influenced by order, will have difficulty in finding an answer.

The full text of the test can be found in Appendix 4 (page Ap.59). The test was administered under normal classroom conditions, but with two invigilators, during a normal English period, to the two selected classes.

5.2 RESULTS

On this occasion, all ninety-nine pupils were present. The results were analysed to show: correct answer, serious attempts and, for those who simply quoted text, an analysis of which part of which sentence was quoted. Quotations were divided into 'appropriate', 'misquoted', and 'excessive'. A full answer pattern can be found in Appendix 4 (pages Ap.60-Ap.62).

The level of non-response was higher than on the multiple-choice section of the 'Daoud' test, but lower than on the free-response section. It increased steadily across the six items from eleven out of ninety-nine, the first, to thirty-three on the sixth.

Item 1: 14 pupils took only the relevant part of the sentence; 73 quoted the whole sentence, of whom 15 omitted the final word, which was on the second line. This does not mean that all the 73 were using lexical matching only; they may have been trained to quote whole sentences. Graf and Torrey (1966) found that isolating constituents, so that a single sense-group was on a single line, helped readers to understand it; but probably these readers are those who were making no attempt at all to parse the sense-group, and so did not think to look to the end of the sentence.

Item 2: nine pupils attempted the transformation demanded;

sixty-one quoted either all or part of the sentence without change. Eleven quoted the succeeding sentence, which was not predicted, but must be due to pupils who fail to grasp the passive in the target sentence assuming that 'their leaves' must be the subject of the next sentence (some of them actually began 'their leaves...'). Four quoted two sentences. 'Used for' entirely failed to distract.

Item 3: no pupil deleted 'and oil' from the sentence. Only 23 found the correct sentence; and 15 others quoted the correct sentence with another. 33 quoted the sixth sentence (5 of whom began 'and oil ...'); and four produced an 'edited' sentence, 'we can use it for producing things' - neither grammatically appropriate nor meaningful, it does indicate how apparently meaningful sentences can be put together without much effort from the text.

Item 4: there were 17 'correct' answers (ie, including those who selected the sixth sentence). 29 pupils quoted the fifth sentence (the main distractor), 13 the fifth, and 19 more than one sentence. Thus, this item caused considerable confusion; pupils choosing wrong answers, especially the fourth and fifth sentences, cannot have done so from detailed knowledge of the text.

Item 5: there were 12 'correct' answers (ie, quoting the final sentence) and 38 who quoted all or part of

the penultimate sentence. Twenty-four others made other attempts.

Item 6: 11 pupils made an attempt, whether successful or not, to summarise the text. 28 quoted the final sentence, in whole or part; 18 quoted other sentences from the text, and 9 quoted the first - indicating that lexical matching does not overrule the order effect.

5.3 CONCLUSIONS

Serious attempts to answer the questions varied from zero to seventeen, with a cluster in the area of eleven. Non-attempt increases sharply in association with the increasing complexity of the task, from nine to thirty-three. Most of the other responses are mainly explicable by lexical matching, and show few attempts to make the selected text structurally appropriate.

A significant minority of pupils give evidence (not predicted) of not being able to locate the beginning and end of a sentence.

Specific techniques include:

- i. select a whole sentence from the text
- ii. select a sentence that contains all the major lexical items from the question
- iii. if the lexical items are spread over two sentences, take both

- iv. where both order and matching of lexical items are available (ie, where a sentence in the text and a question have important lexical items in common, but different places in the sequence), order of text and questions is used more frequently than lexical matching.
- v. some lexical items appear to have more influence on selection decisions than others. Items which occur only once in the text appear in more attempts than items which occur twice - for example, in item 5, 'things' occurs in a sizeable majority of attempts. Another feature which appears to be influential can be summarised as 'rarity' - in item 3, 'produces', an uncommon word, occurs in more attempts than 'food', although both occur once only in the text, in the correct part of the text sequentially, and neither has much bearing on the correct answer.
- vi. structural transformations, for this purpose, change a word significantly, although they may not be major. For example, 'made' (item 5), and 'making' are not effectively matched, although the semantic element is the same in both. This must put lexical matchers at a disadvantage in dealing with some kinds of structure, such as report speech, where there is by definition structural transformation, but effective equivalence of meaning.

5.4 HIERARCHY OF STRATEGIES

Therefore, there is within each item a range of strategies, used by different pupils - the number of pupils using a given strategy varies, however from item to item. These strategies can be broadly classified as follows:

- i. a small proportion of the responses in each case show genuine comprehension, in that they are correct and appropriate. The normal maximum for this category is about 10-15.
- ii. the majority of the responses are determined by factors not normally classified as comprehension - lexical matching, and order. The degree of success of these attempts varies, usually owing to very small factors - one word can make all the difference between virtual unanimity, and a random scatter, or between selection of an appropriate or inappropriate response.
- iii. at the lower end of the range, the responses tend to lose even the semblance of formal correctness - ie, they tend to cross sentence boundaries in order to include more lexical items. The incidence of this does not appear to decline as non-response increases.

CHAPTER VITHE TRANSLATION TEST6.1 INTRODUCTORY

The existence of primarily lexical strategies for comprehension amongst these pupils, in spite of the mainly structural teaching, can be taken as established in Chapter 5. This Chapter is devoted to whether these strategies are restricted to comprehension, and therefore an effect of the comprehension teaching, or whether they are more general. If the problem is restricted to comprehension, then it is of limited importance; if on the other hand it is general, it suggests a basic failure of the methods adopted to achieve the stated aims - structure is being taught, but its learning does not affect pupils' use of language - which would imply major changes in the structure and methods of the course.

A further problem upon which this issue has a bearing is that, if pupils' approach to language in general, outside the comprehension class, is limited to the kind of lexical strategy noted above, it is most unlikely that they will be able to exploit redundancy enough to compensate for the lack of syntactic skills. As a result, they will have considerable difficulty understanding instruction in English, and this deficit

will become progressively more severe over time, as more of what is taught is not learned.

The test chosen for this purpose has to be 'integrative', with no premium on either structure or vocabulary. It has also to be an exercise that puts a natural premium on correctness, so that pupils will do their best to write correct English. It should not put too much strain on the expressive powers of the pupils, or demand too much or too difficult structure or vocabulary. It should, however, at the same time be in Corder's (1974) terms, 'error provoking', rather than 'error avoiding'.

6.2 THE TEST

A translation test fits this specification admirably. It is already a familiar exercise, at least from English to Kannada (see SSLC Paper II, Question 7, in Appendix 1). Translation from English to Kannada, however, is not suitable for the present purpose:

- a. it is 'error avoiding'. Pupils will produce a formally correct Kannada text, which will disguise the reception errors they make, and give no indication of any production errors. We know about the character of reception errors, and need to find out more about the character of

pupils' productive strategies.

- b. It will present major problems of marking. Since the researcher does not have any Kannada, he will be forced to reply upon others with little or no opportunity to check on the quality of their work.

Therefore, the task chosen was translation from Kannada to English. It is accepted that production of a foreign language is much more difficult than reception; but if simple items are chosen, then given that the aim of the methodology is to teach all four skills, the task should be fair. For this reason, the items chosen to be included in the text were not taken from the Std. IX syllabus, but from Stds. V to VII, and from items likely to be in common use.

6.3 PROCEDURE ADOPTED

In order to produce a translation test suitable for this task, the following steps were taken:

Step 1: four colleagues, lecturers on the staff of the RIESI, were asked to produce a list of ten structural and ten lexical items which 'should' be well known at the end of Std. VIII. They were asked to ensure that the items were 'important', and that attention was paid to them, e.g., in the examination.

Step 2: fifteen items were selected from each list.

In the case of structure, it was easy to select items which were common to all or several lists; in the case of lexis, this was more difficult. Items were therefore chosen that occurred on at least one list, and which other staff felt ought to be known.

Step 3: a text was constructed embodying these items, and with as little extraneous difficulty as possible, on a familiar subject.

Step 4: the English text was given to a native speaker of Kannada, a lecturer on the staff of the RIESI, to translate into Kannada.

Step 5: the Kannada text produced by step 4 was given to another native speaker of Kannada, also a lecturer on the RIESI staff, to be translated back into English.

Step 6: the two English texts, original and translation, were compared. No differences were found, but the translator from Kannada to English had asked whether contracted forms should be used, as these have no direct equivalent in Kannada.

Step 7: the Kannada version was then given to the two classes as a translation test.

The full text can be found in Appendix 5 (page Ap. 63)

6.4 MARKING

Traditionally, translations have been marked in one of two ways. First, they have been marked according to what Mendelsohn (1977) calls 'deviance-based' judgements. That is to say, all types of production error have been noted, assigned more or less equal weighting, and subtracted from some hypothetical 'perfect' maximum score. This approach to scoring is associated by Mendelsohn with contrastive linguistics. He notes, for example, that Lado (1961), whose theoretical base was in contrastive linguistics, stressed testing control of 'those units and patterns that do not have a counterpart in the native language, or that have counterparts with structurally different distribution of meaning'. Perren (1967), on the other hand, stresses 'testing for success'; and this has been the other main way of assessing translation - whether it 'reads like English', or 'has the right kind of style', and to give it a subjective assessment. Although this latter has been disapproved of by structural and contrastive linguists, it has persisted amongst teachers. Perhaps the most common response to translation, however, is to give a composite of the two types of score, 'error based' and 'quality based'.

In this study, the aim was not, as Corder (1974) advocates, to compare the attempts with a model 'native'

version. The primary concern is to locate evidence of the extent to which pupils have or have not made a serious attempt to use either structure or lexis. Therefore, no attempt was made to assess the global success or failure; and it was decided simply to count the occurrences of the various 'target' items around which the text was constructed.

The major difficulty therefore was to decide what constitutes an 'occurrence'. The possibility was considered of using some kind of scale, such as 'success', 'attempt', and 'absence of attempt'; but this would only multiply the difficulties of categorisation, without adding much useful information; so it was decided to assess only 'presence/absence' of each item. This left only the problem of criteria.

6.5 CRITERIA

Since the initial hypothesis was that structure would be absent, and lexis present, it was decided to adopt criteria of differential stringency, and assess presence/absence of vocabulary much more severely than presence/absence of structural items.

6.5.1 Lexical Items

Lexical items were only marked as 'present' if there was clearly a good attempt; and the word was either

correct, or very nearly so. Deviations accepted included: 'leive' for 'live', 'hold' for 'old', 'wach' for 'watch'. Deviations not accepted included 'wath' for 'watch', 'gaing' for 'going', 'until' for 'uncle' (although both 'uncil' and 'uncli' were accepted), 'gornedn' for 'garden'.

6.5.2 Structure Words

Structure words were marked as 'present' if there was evidence of an attempt. 'Estday' was accepted for 'yesterday', 'tamarra' for 'tomorrow' (although 'towore' was not. 'Tow' was accepted for 'to', and 'frant' for 'front' (although not 'went')). The aim was to be more lenient than with lexical items.

6.5.3 Structure Items

Where an item depended on word order, or on a suffix or preposition, evidence of an attempt was interpreted leniently. 'House front of one small garden' was accepted as 'in front of' (but not as 'There is/are') - although it is very close to Kannada word order. A lenient attitude was also taken over the location of prepositions (Kannada has 'postpositions'); but for, e.g., the comparative, word order was checked more severely (although the one occurrence of the comparative was itself an approximation ('rose red more beutful than yellow rose are')).

6.6 RESULTS

The results of the testing can be found in Appendix 5, pages Ap.64-Ap.65. 80 students were present for the testing.

Table 6a contains the final outcome, the items arranged in order of frequency:

Table 6a.

<u>Lexical Items</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Structural Items</u>	<u>Frequency</u>
house	83		
old	78		
red	72		
flowers	66		
yellow	58		
small	55		
garden	53		
roses	53		
watch	53		
give	51		
		my	45
		yesterday	44
beautiful	41		
live	40		
		tomorrow	33
		in front of	31
uncle	30		
see	30		

Table 6a. (contd.)

<u>Lexical Items</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Structural Items</u>	<u>Frequency</u>
		to	28
beach	23	a lot of	19
		a (indef. article)	14
		gave (irreg. past)	13
		me	8
		an	7
		came	7
		simple present	5
		from	4
		simple future	4
		there is	3
		it	1
		comparative	1
		contracted forms	1
		there are	0
		have seen	0
		wants me to go	0

6.7 CONCLUSIONS

Lexical items occur far more frequently than structural items. The average script would contain about nine of the lexical items, but fewer than three of the structural ones. Therefore, pupils'

inability to use structure extends to other tasks than comprehension.

In place of English structure, the scripts show heavy dependence on the structure of Kannada, the pupils' mother tongue. It is not part of the purpose of this study to explore in detail this aspect of pupils' performance; such study would only be possible with a high level of knowledge of both languages. However, two examples of scripts have been given in appendix 5 (page Ap. 65) so that the relevant features can be seen.

Typical Kannada features found both in the scripts cited, and in most of the others, include the use of Kannada sentence structure, typified by a subject-object-verb pattern; and the absence of articles - the indefinite article being replaced by 'one':

esterday my unkil New Delhi is coming

he one beeutful hand watch give

Where prepositions are used, they are most likely to be put in the post position, typical of Kannada:

gornedn in some flowers.

Another feature of the scripts is that the items grouped together in the syllabus as 'structure' in fact fall into two groups, assessed on their frequency of use. The items used frequently are, for the most part, structure words rather than patterns, such as verb forms, the comparative, and the like. The only group

of items which do not appear to follow this pattern are the irregular past tenses of verbs, which are much better known than regular past tenses. Thus, items which are well known include 'my', 'yesterday', 'tomorrow', 'in front of', 'to', 'a lot of', and the indefinite article (as well as irregular past tenses). The items which are unknown or little known include simple regular tense forms (present simple, future simple, past perfect), the comparative, contracted verb forms, 'there is', 'wants me to go', and 'it'. Therefore, in terms of the success with which structure is taught and learnt, a clear distinction has to be made between patterns, which are scarcely present at all in this sample of pupils' work, and structure words, which form the bulk of the items tallied under 'structure'.

There are also, however, inconsistencies. Most conspicuous of these is 'my', which appears 45 times, while 'me' is found only eight; and 'to' which occurs 28 times, while 'from' occurs only four times. As already noted, irregular past tenses occur much more frequently than regular, simple forms; and 'in front of' is much more common than certain other patterns, such as 'there is/are', and the comparative. This may be the result of some specific instructional effect, such as that noted by Selinker (1969), who found that although the distinction between 'he' and 'she' is the same in Serbo-Croat as in English, his sample of Serbo-Croatian speakers of English at all levels of proficiency produced 'he' on almost every occasion when either 'he' or 'she' was called for.

He attributed this to 'transfer of training' - textbooks and teachers of English almost always present drills in which 'he' is used rather than 'she', and so produce fossilised errors. It may be, for example, that in the Karnataka textbooks there are many people 'going to Madras', and very few 'coming from Madras'; that there are a lot of occurrences of 'my', and few of 'me', and so on.

Therefore, this exercise points to more effective ways of making sense of pupils' attempts at translation exercises. Where there is, as in this case, relatively large numbers of errors, it is difficult to mark using conventional models of deviancy and quality. It is still, however, possible to get useful 'diagnostic' information. In this case, the information was about two main categories of language, and pupils' relative success within them; this method of assessment, however, was chosen purely as having a bearing on the study as a whole; in other cases, similarly analytic marking methods could have been adopted, to yield different information - for example, about what Corder (1974) describes as 'pre-systematic', 'systematic' and 'post-systematic' types of error, in order to allocate pupils to different remedial groups.

CHAPTER VIIREVIEW OF FIRST STAGE7.1 BACKGROUND DATA

The syllabus and teaching methodology generally used in South India are theoretically unified, but not universally accepted as fully valid. However, no empirical studies were discovered showing that the methodology can be rejected; the evidence against it is theoretical and anecdotal. The system as a whole has had no major innovation for about twenty years, and can therefore be said to be in a stable state. The supply of textbooks is adequate, but the control mechanisms, although resented (something which caused difficulties for the study) are of limited effectiveness in the dearth of resources. The teachers are trained, the time allocated to English is reasonable, and the balance of activities, listening, speaking, reading and writing, except in the testing, is acceptable.

The examination shows an excessive emphasis on seen texts; it is, however, reasonably thorough within its theoretical limits. It is possible, however, that the very low pass mark - it is difficult to imagine 35% of such a paper correct, but it would not represent a high skill level - is subverting the intention of the examination, making it possible to pass it by illegitimate means.

7.2 TEST DATA

Pupils' overall performance on an 'unseen' comprehension test was far below the level that one would expect, from consideration of the syllabus alone. This and subsequent tests suggested that pupils' strategies were not what would have been predicted from the theory:

- i. comprehension: the strategies in evidence were overwhelmingly a matter of matching lexis between text and questions. meaning was not important; lexis would be matched in preference to meaning even where it was entirely irrelevant or absurd. Where a question was in free-response format, pupils selected sentences from the text, rather than formulating an answer, whether or not the content of the answer was correct. The sentences were not trimmed to fit the demands of the question.
- ii. translation: lexical items were normally present in reasonable numbers, structural items much more rarely. Structure words were more common than affixes - verb forms were especially weak; sentence patterns were non-English throughout.

7.3 CONCLUSIONS

This suggests that:

- i. there is a divergence between the results as evidence of learning, and the syllabus and textbooks as evidence of teaching.
The results in practice are not what the methodology seeks to achieve; specifically, this is most important in the area of structure.
- ii. pupils' comprehension strategies are a limited subset of those typical of natural language - semantic strategies, rather than syntactic. Even amongst semantic strategies, only a subset are used, and those show no sign of any real probing of meaning. They therefore cannot cope independently with the kind of text included in the textbooks.
- iii. this suggests that in addition to the breakdown in the teaching/learning process, whereby pupils are not learning nearly as much as they should, there is some kind of breakdown in the system of feedback which gives the teacher information about the success of a lesson or a course.

7.4 FURTHER INVESTIGATIONS PROPOSED

This suggests the following directions for further investigation:

- i. Why is it that structure is being taught, but not learned? Is it
 - a) too complicated or difficult for the majority of pupils, as a result of the way it is taught?
 - b) seen as being for some reason irrelevant to the larger goal of learning English?
- ii. Is this failure most likely to be the result of
 - a) some weakness in the fundamental theoretical underpinning?
 - b) failure to translate the theory into workable teaching devices?
 - c) inability of the teachers to fulfil the demands of the teaching devices, for some reason; or some other cause?
- iii. What are the reasons in the classroom why the teachers appear to be unaware of the extent of the failure of the structure teaching? Why are they misled?
- iv. What are the reasons for the weakness in unseen comprehension?

How does the teaching fail to develop comprehension skills?

- v. Given that the comprehension lessons must result in pupils becoming knowledgeable about the content of the texts they study, can they generalise this knowledge to other questions about those texts, involving the knowledge they already have, but demanding some new thinking?
- vi. What is it that the teachers (and indeed pupils) do in the comprehension lessons, that hides the real difficulties pupils have with comprehension? How do pupils and teachers collaborate
 - a) to formulate adequate answers to questions
 - b) to arrive at a generally high level of knowledge about the text (such as must be needed to cope with the SSLC examination)

This suggests a broadening of the method of investigation. A further series of tests is necessary; but full answers to the questions above can only be made taking into consideration the teaching itself. It will therefore be necessary to look at some actual lessons.

PART II - STUDY OF THE TEACHINGCHAPTER VIIIDATA AND METHOD OF ANALYSIS8.1 THE DATA AVAILABLE

The range of data available was constrained by the refusal of any teacher, in any school, to be recorded. This did not surprise my Indian colleagues, who felt that even though I was not associated with the Government, teachers would not want to risk any unguarded remark or act that might get back to the Department of Public Instruction.

Therefore, the teachers studied were participants in the RIESI's four-month in-service course for teachers. All of these were experienced teachers of English in Government schools, and their lesson plans were agreed with RIESI staff. Since the aim of the course is not just to improve the skills of teachers, but to select the best of them to become teacher-trainers, the quality of their teaching was likely to be above average; in the view of the RIESI staff, it varied from average to very good indeed. Since the course is based on the existing textbooks and their use, we can assume that their teaching was not heterodox. All teaching practice at the RIESI is undertaken with Karnataka state books and methodology.

The staff at the Institute, when asked, did not consider the lessons transcribed in any way uncharacteristic of normal 'good' practice.

Lack of facilities in the school, and the general disruption it would cause to the teacher training programme of the RIESI placed severe limitations on the number of recordings that could be made; and the absence of any transcription facilities limited the number that could be transcribed. It was decided to concentrate on two areas; the introduction of structure and vocabulary, and the teaching of comprehension, as most germane to the general run of the pupils' activities, and the data already gathered. This made it possible to collect at least two teachers in each area. In addition, a 'rather below average' teacher who was available was recorded during another session devoted to a different recording task; and is included to indicate the lower end of the range (teacher 5). Therefore, the data for this part of the study consist of two transcripts of structure lessons, one taught by an 'A'-grade teacher (i.e., one of the top ten percent or so), and the other by a low 'B'-grade teacher (i.e., around the top of the lowest quartile of a class of 80); and three transcripts of comprehension lessons, two of teachers working on 'The Cunning Man' (see Appendix 11 for text), which is also the basis for part of the testing in the final

section, and one on 'Whang the Miller' (text in Appendix 12). Of them, one is an 'A'-grade, one a 'B'-grade, and one a 'C'-grade (i.e., the best, the middle, and the lowest fifteen percent).

8.2 THE METHOD OF ANALYSIS

No suitable evaluation form or established procedure was available. The Flanders (1960) interaction analysis was modified by Moskowitz (1967); but this has been severely criticised by Bailey (1974) on the grounds of lack of clarity and objectivity in the categories. Since the tool was designed for assessing teaching practice, rather than as a research tool, Bailey's strictures are probably well founded, and its pragmatic significance far from clear.

Other work, notably that of Stubbs (1974), has been concerned with the ways in which the teacher controls the classroom situation. Stubbs analyses in detail the ways in which the teacher tries to control the pupils' behaviour, in many cases unconsciously. He develops the work of Hymes (1962, 1972) on 'metalanguage' - where the function of language involves focussing on the language itself, for example, by explaining certain facts about language - language with a 'contact' function - where the focus is on the channel of communication - and language with a 'poetic' function - where the focus is on message form. Stubbs

investigates the way in which verbal monitoring of the speech situation is used in 'teacher talk'. He lists a number of categories derived from observation and study of transcripts:

- i. control over channels of communication
(e.g., attract attention, show attention)
- ii. control over the amount of talk (e.g.,
'elicit', prompt, cue or reject speech)
- iii. control over the content of the talk
(e.g., define topic, edit topic, elicit
justification/example).
- iv. control over language form (e.g., edit
language, correct language, name)
- v. control over understanding (e.g. 'under-
standing' and 'clarification' categories)

Thus the interaction in the classroom, in Stubbs' view, is overwhelmingly controlled by the teacher.

In the language teaching situation, there are risks in this. Whereas in 'content' subjects, the element of 'hidden curriculum' (after Snyder, 1971) is essentially concerned with such matters as habits of work, predicting the standards in examinations, and so on, in language, it may be the very substance of the teaching and learning. Allwright (1975), proposes

three basic elements for the language teaching situation:

- i. samples of the target language (including culture and discourse-level skills)
- ii. guidance concerning the nature of the target language
- iii. management activities - which affect essentially the achievement of profitable occurrence of the first two elements.

It is Allwright's view that all of these tend to interact - specifically in this case that the management activities act as very important samples, because they are one of the very few areas of natural language use available in the foreign language classroom. Thus, pupils' ability to use the target language may well be constrained by the kind of management activities found in the class - and if the teacher does not allow pupils to formulate their wishes about what should be studied, for example, but dominates the class by the use of metalanguage, he is restricting the range of samples available.

Therefore, the analysis will be based on a combination of things that can be counted, and things that have to be considered more qualitatively. The things that will be counted are:

- i. the ratio of teacher-to-pupil talk.
The significance of this was first noted by Flanders (1960); typically, he found, the teacher talks much more than the pupils. If this is so, it is of itself indicative of teacher dominance and control. It also gives an estimate of the number of opportunities an average pupil can expect to get to use language.
- ii. the average length in words of the pupils' contributions. If most of the pupil contributions tend to be one or two words, this suggests that they are mostly 'yes Sir' and 'no Sir', or odd words of that kind, and that pupils are getting few attempts actually to formulate clauses and sentences.
- iii. the distribution of pupil contributions:
 - a) whole class, group within class, or individual
 - b) are the contributions coming from a sizeable number of pupils, or only a few?

This will give an indication of whether the class as a whole is participating or only a minority.

8.3 THE QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

The qualitative analysis will concentrate on:

- i. the type of question used by the teacher
- ii. the range of helping devices called on by the teacher
- iii. the character of the situationalisation practised
- iv. the character of the pupils' response

8.3.1 The Type of Question Used

Although the question is not likely to be the majority of all teacher talk, it is in many ways the most important aspect. It is the point at which there is an opportunity for the pupil to assess the kind and level of demand the teacher is making of her, and therefore the degree of sophistication which he expects the pupils to attain. It is therefore a powerful regulator of pupil performance. It also gives the teacher a chance to hear and assess a response from the pupil, and thereby gauge pupil understanding.

It is proposed to divide teacher questions into broad categories, according to purpose:

Type 1. Seeking information not known to the teacher

This category will cover mainly questions relevant to the day-to-day management of the class - such as where a pupil is, why she isn't present; or questions about the impact of some other part of school life on the class of the moment.

Type 2. Monitoring pupils' understanding by direct questioning

That is to say, such questions as 'do you understand?' 'O.K.?' and the like, where the teacher wishes to check on the pupils' grasp of what he is saying, and elects to do so by asking a direct question, whether they have any doubts about what he has said so far.

Type 3. Seeking information already known to the teacher, as a way of monitoring pupils' understanding

This is a large category, covering all kinds of 'test' questions likely to be asked by the teacher. It covers, in fact, the whole range of possibilities to be found in Bloom's (1956) taxonomy, from knowledge to aesthetic appreciation; and for present purposes will be further subdivided, not following Bloom in detail, but into three broad categories:

Type 3(a) 'Knowledge' questions where the answer is a fact, in the sense that it is immediately verifiable by reference e.g., to a statement in a 'comprehension' text, or to something that has already been stated.

Type 3(b) 'Inference' questions where the pupil has to put together facts stated in different places, or different texts, perhaps something in a text with something said by the teacher, to produce a conclusion not stated by either text or teacher. This may take the form of problem-solving, or drawing a conclusion using one's knowledge of the world, as well as the stated facts; and therefore covers the majority of Bloom's categories above the knowledge level.

Type 3(c) 'Reaction' questions where the pupil is asked to demonstrate involvement by making a judgement, or expressing their own reaction to a story, proposal etc. This for example may involve pupils in making a judgement about the character of someone in a text, or saying what they would prefer to do in the class, or how they would like to tackle a particular task, whether real - how they would like to solve a problem - or fictional - how they think a character in a story/problem should proceed.

Type 4. 'Metaquestions'

This category is called 'metaquestions' because it breaches the conventional information-seeking model; the teacher's aim is not to extract information, the 'value' of the answer, but purely language form. It may be a question where the answer is irrelevant, or wholly predictable, as part of a sequence enabling the teacher to say something in a 'context', or it may be a question designed to extract an answer in a particular form, where the teacher is not interested in the content of the answer, but only its form.

Such questions come in two basic types:

Type 4(a) Metaquestions giving teacher an opportunity to use specific language, where the teacher creates the illusion of participation by the pupils, asking them questions where the answer is obvious, or irrelevant, as part of a sequence planned in advance (i.e., not dependent upon the answer to the question) to enable the teacher to use certain language items, and expose the pupils to them.

Type 4(b) Metaquestions calling upon the pupil to use a specific structure or lexis, where the answer is not an intellectual challenge, or informative to the teacher except in so far as it informs him about the specified language; and pupils are aware that the content of the answer is less important than its form.

It should be noted that the above is an analysis with respect to purpose, and not form. The reason for this is that it is contended that the difference between questions can only be gauged when it is possible to see how the questioner uses the information. Take, for example,

Isn't Shanti here today?

If it is a type 1 question, an appropriate response on being told that she is absent might be

- marking register
- handing her marked work to a friend to her
- changing some previously-made arrangement
- acceptance of the information with some such response as 'I see ... well, let's get on'.

On the other hand, if it is a type 4 question, the teacher will respond by developing a language teaching sequence:

'I see; Shanti's not here today; if she had been here, where would she have been sitting?'

'Shanti is not here today; will she be here tomorrow?'

In the same way, the 'level' of a type 3 question will be determined not necessarily by the question itself, but by the level of support available.

In transcript 5, Mr Venkat Raman asks:

What kind of a man was Whang?

This can be answered (as is in fact the case) by reference to a single sentence as "he was by nature very greedy" - if that is what will satisfy the questioner. In such a case, it is at the first level. If, on the other hand, pupils have to form a global representation of Whang's character, and form their own judgement, then the question is at the third level. In such cases, it is also necessary to take into account the possibility that the teachers may ask questions which are much more difficult than they intend, and in the process of helping the pupils, may give them clues which change not just the difficulty, but the whole character of the question. This is covered in the next section.

8.3.2 Teachers' Helping Devices

Three basic categories of guidance are considered:

- i. breaking down the problem into smaller steps, and going through them until the one which causes the trouble is reached. This kind of guidance is taken as indicative of a 'problem-centred' approach, aimed at developing skill in doing tasks, rather than simply at getting tasks done.

- ii. giving pupils a choice of possible answers, and asking them to select the most suitable. In this case, the teacher intervenes less in the problem solving process, but by ruling out all but a few possible answers, gives considerable confidence to the waverers. A similar tactic to this would be asking supplementary questions which strongly indicate the answer to the original question. In neither case is the teacher giving first priority to the discovery process.
- iii. directing pupils' attention to the place where the answer can be found, or supplying the answer, and asking them to confirm it. In this case, the teacher's primary concern is with the input of knowledge - for its own sake, rather than as a device for practising skills.

Study of these helping devices supplements the information about the type of questions the teachers ask. A teacher who is developing a particular skill, when the pupils fail on one of the questions, will use a skill-oriented helping device; one who has no particular objective of this kind will tend to take the most direct route using for example type (iii) devices.

Therefore, it will play a significant part in the formation of the 'hidden' curriculum.

8.3.3 Situationalisation

Where the teachers make use of situational presentation of items, we shall seek to evaluate it:

- i. is the situation one which in fact provides a good 'sample'? Or is it in Widdowson's terms 'inappropriate in terms of use'?
(1978 : p. 8)
- ii. does the situation succeed in making clear how the target language item can be useful, or does the need for duplication of sentence and situation militate against this?
- iii. is the situation clear? Or can the pupils easily fail to grasp the point of the target language item?
- iv. does the situation have provision for feedback or meaning checks?
- v. is the situation interesting?

8.3.4 Pupils' Contributions

In addition to length, it is proposed to study three aspects of the pupils' contribution:

- i. degree to which they attempt to supply answers spontaneously, even when not sure; or wait for some guidance from the teacher
- ii. amount of cognitive demand placed upon the pupil - whether the questions are
 - a) too easy (indicated by an immediate, chorussed response
 - b) of appropriate difficulty (indicated by a short pause, for thought, followed by several pupils offering answers)
 - c) too difficult (indicated by a long pause, and few offers of answers
- iii. amount of teacher control of utterance.
Is it
 - a) spontaneous - originating from the pupil herself. May be structurally unpredictable, and should provoke a novel and appropriate response from the teacher
 - b) controlled by the teacher as to form and/or content. The teacher reduces the cognitive challenge by indicating in some way what answer is desired

(e.g., where a certain structure has to be used).

- c) forced choice and/or selection. Where the teacher offers the pupil a set of alternatives, such as yes/no, true/false, or multiple choice; or demands an answer selected from a resource or text.
- d) repetition. Where the answer merely repeats a previous answer, or something the teacher has said (normally, e.g. as a device to increase awareness or fix an answer in pupils' minds).

CHAPTER IXANALYSIS OF THE STRUCTURE LESSONS9.1 RATIO OF PUPIL TO TEACHER TALK

As can be seen from table 9a, the ration of teacher to pupil talk was in excess of 8:2 in both cases. Therefore, the pupils spent almost all of each lesson listening to the teacher, rather than in repeating the new language.

9.2 LENGTH OF PUPIL CONTRIBUTIONS

Table 9b shows the number of pupil contributions of one word, two words, and more than two words. In each case, about half of the pupil contributions were of one word only; and about another fifth were of two words. Thus, at least two-thirds of all pupil contributions were too short to include all of a target structure.

9.3 CHARACTER OF PUPIL CONTRIBUTIONS

Table 9c shows the different types of contribution pupils made to the lesson. In both cases, the most numerous single category was repeating the final word of a teacher sentence. This is used to enforce attention. Other important categories of pupil response, which did not demand formulation by pupils of their own answers, were repeat of a previous answer, or sentence

TABLE 9.a - PROPORTIONS OF TEACHER TO PUPIL TALK

	Structure Teacher		Comprehension Teachers		
	1	2	3	4	5
Teacher talk %	90	85	80	80	75
Pupil talk %	10	15	20	20	25

N.B. All figures are of necessity approximate, owing to the difficulty of finding an accurate way of making such timings; and have therefore been rounded off to the nearest 5%.

TABLE 9.b - LENGTH OF PUPIL CONTRIBUTIONS

Length	Teacher 1		Teacher 2	
	n	%	n	%
one word	46	53	75	47
two words	19	22	26	16
more than two words	22	25	57	36

TABLE 9.c - CATEGORIES OF PUPILS RESPONSE

Category	Teacher 1		Teacher 2	
	n	%	n	%
repeat of final word	21	24	52	33
repeat of previous answer/ sentence given by teacher	19	22	24	15
reading from blackboard	-	-	40	25
selection from substitution table on blackboard	11	13	-	-
oral substitution	3	3	19	12
answer to a 'yes/no' question	4	5	10	6
answer (including unsuccessful) to some other type of question where pupil has to formulate	16	18	-	-
sentence formed (including in answer to a question) where teacher clearly indicates form and content	12	14	5	3
other (greetings, Kannada equivalents, etc.)	1	1	8	5
Totals	87	100	158	(99)

spoken by the teacher (both teachers), selection from a substitution table on the blackboard (teacher 1), and reading from the blackboard (teacher 2). Teacher 1 made extensive use of closely-controlled production, teacher 2 of oral substitution; only teacher 1 allowed any significant number of answers formulated by the pupils themselves.

9.4 THE CHARACTER OF THE TEACHER'S CONTRIBUTIONS

The bulk of the teacher talk is taken up with activities such as amplifying responses, and extended exposition of situations. Each has his own characteristic pattern of activity.

Teacher 1 devotes much of his time to extended exposition of his situations (cf. Appendix 6, lines 12-21, page Ap. 66, and lines 24-31, page Ap. 67). In this activity, the pupils remain passive, except where called on to repeat the last word of the teacher's sentence. Teacher 2, on the other hand, apparently begins with the intention of asking a great many questions; but when he fails to get ready answers from the pupils (cf. Appendix 7, lines 1-10, page Ap. 77), he resorts to answering his own questions, rather than accept a lesson with a slower pace, and at a lower level, than he had planned for. Thereafter, his situations mainly involve telling pupils what to say, rather than asking questions (cf. Appendix 7, lines 114-35, pages Ap. 80-81, 138-61, page Ap. 81, 163-9, pages Ap. 81-2, and 172-194, page Ap. 82).

In order to characterise this situational treatment, an example has been taken from the best of the teachers, teacher 3. It occurs in a comprehension lesson; but is used for introducing new language. It can be found in Appendix 8 (page Ap. 92) lines 1-68.

The purpose of the situation is to introduce a number of lexical items - 'holy man', 'hungry', 'eatables', 'wandering', 'gunny bag', and 'Panchayat Hall'. These lexical items determine the content of the story. This shows unusual application and ingenuity. However, the story inevitably has an incoherent narrative structure. First, there is surprisingly little connection between the man's hunger and his thefts. Second, his behaviour shows none of the characteristic features of a holy man - he is never associated with temples, meditation, and the like. Third, the gunny bag which is mentioned has no part in the story. Fourth, his 'wandering' is mentioned, but with no narrative purpose. Fifth, the only role of the 'lady' is to give the 'eatables'. Finally, there is no real denouement. The holy man is arrested, but not by any clever trick, or under exciting circumstances. It is as if this were the setting, with the real events yet to come.

As a result, the narrative strength of the story is markedly compromised. Both pupils and teacher recognise this. The teacher goes out of her

TABLE 9.d - ANALYSIS OF TEACHER 3, LINES 1-68

Content	Comment
Do you like stories?/shall I tell you one?	only the most rash pupil would say 'no'
See, it's a real one	attempt to assert verisimilitude
Where miss?	pupils collaborate?
On the way, I saw a holy man	first language item
have you seen holy men?	attempt to engage pupils' attention
Yes miss	true; but also expected answer
This holy man said that he was hungry	second language item
Are you hungry now?	attempt to engage pupils' attention
Yes/no	teacher gets into unexpected trouble over whether they are hungry;
So you aren't hungry	this was teacher's original aim; simple contrast with holy man
a lady gave him some eatables	third language item
do you know what eatables are?	check
eatables are things that can be eaten	'food' is not the desired definition
I saw the holy man wandering along the streets	fourth language item
with a gunny bag in his hand	fifth language item
have you seen? Yes miss	stock response from pupils; teacher suspects lack of engagement;
where have you seen?	therefore persists
holy man seen	pupils think it ought to suffice
merchants keep rice, dhal etc. in ...	teacher explains
I heard people say that he was not ...	as is the case with Gundappa; aim is to prepare pupils

TABLE 9.d (Contd.)

Content	Comment
So they hid themselves ... handed him over to the police	the denouement
then he was taken to the Panchayat Hall	sixth language item
You know what a Panchayat is?	characteristic of a language item; a check by the teacher; pupils answer using direct reference to the story
there he was shown to be guilty ...	to round it off
did you like this story?	yes miss - of course

way to add touches of verisimilitude - it happened in Madras, she says; she saw the man on the way to school - to engage the pupils' attention by 'affective' questions - 'do you like stories?' (line 1), 'do you like this story?' (line 67), 'is it interesting?' (line 69) - by checks on pupils' attention and understanding - 'have you seen holy men?' (line 11), 'are you hungry now?' (line 16), 'do you know what eatables are?' (line 30), 'what was he doing?' (line 35), 'have you seen a gunny bag?' (line 40) and so on - and by straightforward assertion - 'it's a real one'. The pupils however respond in a rather apathetic way - the 'affective' questions for the most part elicit only chorused 'yes, miss' responses. On the other hand, questions designed to check on their understanding of meaning, even when formally demanding a yes/no answer, get treated as requests for information (cf lines 30,31).

In this context, line 16, 'are you hungry now?', is unusually interesting. The teacher intends it to be answered by a chorused 'no, miss', indicative of understanding. The pupils treat it as a genuine request for information, and give a diversity of answers. The teacher is forced back on a confused line of supplementary questions, leading to 'so you are not hungry now?', and the chorused response she had been seeking. Instead of using the genuine information

she had received, she suppresses it, and replaces it with a chorused formal response, with which that particular transaction ends.

Other characteristics that can be derived from the transcripts are:

- i. questions typically have no challenge. For example, teacher 1, line 67, 'what is your motherland?' (where all the pupils are obviously Indian). Teacher is setting up a predicted response to prepare the way for his next move.
- ii. the ground is usually well prepared - if there is any element of genuine challenge or request for information, the teacher is likely to ensure it in advance (cf. teacher 1, line 132 et seq.)
- iii. spurious personal element. For example, teacher 1, lines 208 onward. The personal details are spurious, and indeed in line 224 changed in mid-statement.
- iv. abrupt transitions. Instead of the coherence of normal discourse, there is fragmentation; nothing is used beyond its initial manifestation (cf. teacher 4, from line 36).

- v. commonplace character. Nothing in the situations can present novelty or challenge. Teachers aim at the commonplace, and as a result there is much repetition, and little of interest (cf. teacher 4, lines 54 on, and teacher 2, lines 115 on).

9.5 ANALYSIS OF THE TEACHER'S QUESTIONS

Table 9e and 9f contain an analysis of the bulk of the questions asked by teachers 1 and 2. The questions are divided into two basic groups, those which for some reason stand alone ('isolates') and those which come in groups. The reason that these latter are classified into groups is that they are related, normally because the first question fails to secure the desired answer, and has to be amplified; but in other cases, because the answer to one question leads on to the next. It was felt that questions within a group could not meaningfully be separated - and therefore, could not be counted and classified.

Most of the questions are of the kind that have been described above as 'metaquestions' - their aim is linguistic, rather than to achieve something outwith the language. These questions are characterised by:

- i. content a matter of common knowledge; questions do not get more complex, except linguistically, over time, or vary much

TABLE 9.e - TEACHER 1's QUESTIONS

i. 'isolated' questions	type	comment
What is your name (twice)	1	new to class and wishes to use names
do you have a library in your school? (l.136)	1	to add verisimilitude, prompt response?
understand? (without pause) 1.28	2?	no pause
what are they called? (1.34)	3	check on vocabulary (teacher supplies)
can you give me a few sentences? (1.163)	1	request for action
how many sentences can you get? (1.187 on)	3	task management - to overcome block
have you all been to Lalbagh? (1.232)	1	to add verisimilitude
ii. 'groups' of questions		
Group a (lines 4-13)		
What did you do when I came into the class?	4a	
did you sit down or stand up?	4a	defines how teacher wants 1st question answered
why did you stand up?	4a	teacher wants 'a mark of respect'
why did you (say good morning)?	4a	setting up opportunity to use 'you must respect your teachers'
Is it because you like me?	4a	still aiming at 'respect'
Group b (lines 62-76)		
Can you tell me which is your nation?	4a	answer surely obvious
do you belong to England? (etc.)	4a	to set up 'you must love your country'

TABLE 9.e (Contd.)

Group c (lines 93-102)

what should you do if you are sick?	4a/b	seeking 'go to the doctor'
will you go to school if you are sick	4a	defining answer required
won't you go to the hospital?	4a	further defining the answer
what should you do if you are sick	4b	teacher asks for repeat; supplies 'I should'.

Group d (lines 114-123)

if you want an inland, what should you do?	4b	wanting 'I should go to the Post Office'
where do you get the inland?	4a	defining the desired answer content
so what should you do if you want an inland?	4a	repeat of original question. Teacher supplies 'I should' and persists until the form is clearly correct

Group e (lines 132-153)

what should Pramila do to get a story book?	4b	pupils allow teacher to supply the answer, although it had been prepared by the question about the library, and the form was known
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Group f (lines 232-267)

what can you see (in Lalbagh?)	4a	to give teacher an opportunity to use 'a variety of ...'
Mysore Zoo. What can you see there?	4a	as above; but teacher supplies questions are then repeated until pupils supply 'a variety of' without prompting

questions from this point on are of this latter kind, designed to introduce vocabulary - What is this? or What can you see? Pupils presumably know the answer, but not the English word required.

TABLE 9.f - TEACHER 2's QUESTIONS

i. 'isolated' questions	type	comment
understand? (1.41, 1.396, 1.431)	2	with pause; no response
understand? (1.199)	2	with pause and response
understand? (1.113. 1.160. 1.342, 1.366, 1.386, 1.391, 1.422)	2	no pause; no response
what is the word for this 1 in Kannada? (1.320, 1.351, 1.381)		
ii. 'groups'		
Group a (1.1-41)		
Is it a growing plant? (1.2)	4a	yes/no; teacher corrects pupil (who has presumably guessed)
what's wrong? (1.10)	4a	teacher supplies answer without pause
why? (1.13)	4a	teacher supplies answer without pause
what ought you to do? (1.30)	4a	teacher supplies answer without pause
Group b (1.49-66)		
What do you say about your classroom?	4a	answer specified in next question
is it beautiful? (1.49)	4a	answer yes
why do you say it is beautiful? (1.54)	4a	impossible to answer; teacher supplies
Group c (1.86-113)		
Don't you see something there? (1.86)	4a	teacher supplies answer without pause
why? why the light is coming in? (1.89)	4a	no answer

TABLE 9.f (Contd.)

what about your classroom? (1.1,91)	4a	pupils assume 'no' is expected?
No. Why is it so here (1.94)	4a	teacher supplies answer
Group d (1.118-133)		
Do you obey your parents? (1.118)	4a	answer not waited for
suppose ... do you ... get it for her?	4a	answer obvious
what do you say?	4b	ought
Group e (1.138-162)		
what should you do? (1.146)	4b	teacher supplies answer; pupils repeat
Group f (1. 172-195)		
Is it correct? (1.173)	4a	answer obvious
is it a right thing?	4a	teacher supplies answer teacher continues by telling pupils what to say
Group g (1.196-209)		
what ought you to do? (1.203)	4b	teacher supplies answer
Group h (1.210-220)		
are you hungry? (1.270)	4a	teacher's standby question. Teacher continues by telling pupils what to say

TABLE 9.f (Contd.)

Group i (1.305-318)

don't you see a building there?	4a	yes
Do you see the roof of that building? (1.308)	4a	yes
Do you see a building - with a red roof?	4a	yes
What's the difference?	4a	very complex question for pupils; they resort to Kannada

Group j (1.282-290)

What do you use to thatch? (1.342)	4a	too complex
Do you always use coconut leaves? (1.344)	4a	teacher supplies answer

Group k (1.436-443)

Is it milk?

Can you use it to prepare tea or coffee?

can you prepare this milk to coffee or something?

what is this (sap)?

On the whole, the teacher's vocabulary questions are more successful than his structure ones; pupils know what he means, but not the English words.

as to subject matter; answers are not, except linguistically, dependent upon teaching. As a result, attention is drawn to the linguistic element, although superficially the questions are genuine ones.

- ii. lack of challenge, other than linguistic. Pupils are not being given substantial tasks to undertake, e.g. calculation, reference to books, etc., or involving any other kind of mental effort. As a result, questions do not involve major external reference, or study of data.

Characteristically, there is also a pre-occupation with the form of the answers, as shown by the teacher, e.g., asking pupils to repeat answers, or rephrasing answers in the correct form.

9.6 TEACHERS' HELPING DEVICES

The devices used by the teacher to help the pupil towards an answer in these lessons reflect this lack of challenge. There are, for example, no attempts to break the task down into a series of steps; although it is often divided into two areas, form and content. The main devices used are:

- i. indirect supply of content of answer:
as in teacher 1, line 135 - 'You have a library in your school - don't you have a library?' In order to confirm something he doesn't know about the school, the teacher indicates strongly the content of the desired answer. Another way in which the same thing is done by the same teacher comes in lines 114-129; failing to get an answer to his question in the form 'what should you do ...' the teacher decides to settle the content issue before tackling the form, and asks, 'Where do you get the inland?'
- ii. setting up a wrong answer as a guide to form, and a contrast to content: as in teacher 1, line 94, 'Will you go to school (if you are sick)?'
- iii. supplying either the form or the content (or both) of the answer. Teacher 1 does this with respect to form in line 123, and content in line 125. Teacher 2 repeatedly tells pupils what to say, for example, in line 30, line 215, and others.

Such activities as these are an essential concomitant of the lack of challenge associated with metaquestions; if there is no serious challenge, it is difficult to find a way of helping pupils to cope, without supplying the answer.

9.7 CONCLUDING

Conclusions about structure lessons are:

- i. the structure lessons are dominated by the teacher; there are four teacher utterances to every pupil utterance - and teacher utterances are clearly much the longer.
- ii. pupil utterances tend to be short - two out of three are of two or fewer words in length. Therefore, in most cases the whole of the structure is not being repeated.

Therefore, the result is to subvert the aim of getting pupils rapidly to the stage where they are using the target structure. Most of what they get is exposure; and most of their production is too short to practice a structure. In fact, pupil responses are dominated by repetition, of final words or previous answer, and by acts of selection and substitution.

- iii. the teacher questions in structure lessons are almost all of type 4 - management/

elicitation of target language. They are therefore not good 'samples' of natural questioning techniques.

- iv. pupils are not engaged by the situations to the degree that is intended. This is probably because the situations have no communicative purpose except to exemplify language, and pupils may feel that they are therefore irrelevant. They are also inevitably dull, even when (as in the case of teacher 3, considerable effort is put into constructing them.

Pupils are not therefore being exposed to the demands of natural language. They respond by showing lack of attention to the teacher (cf. teacher 1, lines 114-118) and by seeking to supply the answer he wants without paying detailed attention (cf. teacher 1 lines 94-96).

- v. no general strategy appears to exist for developing helping devices for when the pupils fail in the task. This may be because, given the stress on habit formation, all wrong responses are to be avoided.
- vi. in addition, silence is considered undesirable. As a result, teachers go out of their way to avoid both wrong responses and silence.

- vii. one unexpected casualty of this may be the kind of substitution task practised only by teacher 1. The pupils found this very difficult, because it tended to involve various changes other than simply substituting nouns or verbs - e.g., in pronouns and articles. Because the major difficulty was not with the target structure (where there was ample support) a thoughtful teacher would discard it.
- viii. another casualty was feedback to the teacher about pupils' attainment. The devices used are all those which offer pupils enough support to enable them to 'produce' the target structure with minimum delay. Therefore, they systematically overstate the pupils' ability to use the structure, and devices which do not do this are excluded as pedagogically inefficient.

Another possible victim is meaning; the only occasion where the target structure is found associated with meaning is when it is being introduced. This however, must be checked by testing.

- ix. no attempt is made to introduce situations which are appropriate in terms of use.

The stress is on situations where there is duplication of meaning.

- x. no attempt is made to check on the adequacy of the introduction, by checking on pupils' understanding of meaning. The emphasis throughout is on form in the pupils' production of the target structure.

Therefore, pupils are in a position where they are neither equipped to make use of the structure, nor likely to be called on to do so, at least during the structure lesson. That being so, it is hardly surprising that they exhibit inordinate dependence on the teacher. This dependence can be seen in teacher 1, lines 117-121, 141-150, and 173-182; and in teacher 2, lines 126-133 and 275-278. This dependence merely compounds the problem, forcing teachers to give more support. It does not prepare pupils to use the structure; and may contribute to their dependence on lexical strategies in situations calling for language use.

CHAPTER XRESULTS: COMPREHENSION LESSONS10.1 PROPORTION OF TEACHER-TO PUPIL-TALK

Table 9a (page 109) gives the approximate proportions of teacher-to-pupil-talk in the three comprehension lessons (rounded off to the nearest 5%). The overall proportion of teacher-to-pupil-talk in the three comprehension lessons was about 8:2. This is broadly in agreement with the figures cited by, e.g. Flanders (1962) and Moskowitz (1970). It is in a lesson where teachers question pupils about their reading, rather than expound the content of a book.

10.2 LENGTH OF PUPIL CONTRIBUTIONS

Table 10a gives the number of pupil contributions to the lesson consisting of one word, two words, and three or more words, for teachers 3, 4 and 5.

TABLE 10aLENGTH OF PUPIL CONTRIBUTIONS

<u>Length</u>	<u>Teacher 3</u>		<u>Teacher 4</u>		<u>Teacher 5</u>	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
One word	68	40	43	50	10	38.9
Two words	55	32.4	24	27.9	9	34.6
Three or more words	47	27.6	19	22.1	7	26.5

These proportions differ only slightly from those found in Table 9b, there being more two-word contributions by pupils, and fewer one-word ones. Again, as can be seen from Table 10b, a sizeable number of the pupils' contributions are of yes/no or true/false.

10.3 CHARACTER OF THE PUPILS' RESPONSES

It was not suitable to analyse the comprehension responses using exactly the same frame as for the structure and vocabulary responses. However, a simplified version was employed to generate Table 10b:

TABLE 10b
CATEGORIES OF PUPIL RESPONSE

<u>Category</u>	<u>Teacher 3</u>		<u>Teacher 4</u>		<u>Teacher 5</u>	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Repeat of final word	5	2.9	3	3.5	1	3.8
Repeat of previous answer/teacher sentence	6	3.5	7	8.1	4	15.4
Yes/no & true/false	46	27.1	27	31.4	14	53.9
Read from text	24	14.1	2	2.3	4	15.4
Pupil responds to explicit teacher guidance	11	6.5	11	12.8	0	0
Pupil formulates answer	78	45.9	36	41.9	3	11.5

As can be seen from table 10b, a much smaller proportion of pupils' responses in comprehension lessons are either determined in advance by the teacher, or simple repetition, than is the case with structure lessons. Therefore, the proportion of pupils' contributions that are actually formulated by the pupil is quite high (although variable from teacher to teacher).

The length and complexity of the pupils' formulations, however, are questionable. About two thirds of all pupil productions are of one or two words; and reading from the text (which is most unlikely to be only one or two words) takes up about 15% of all pupil utterances. Therefore, the proportion of pupil utterances which will be both multi-word, and formulated by the individual pupil, must be small. Study of the transcripts confirms that this is so; teacher 3 has ten such instances in her lesson; teacher 4 has three, and teacher 5 only one. If we take the ten found in teacher 3's lesson as an upper bound in normal teaching (teacher 3 being much the best teacher, and having much the highest figure) and assume that this number is evenly spread amongst the pupils, we see that in a typical class of fifty, each pupil can expect to produce one multi-word, independently-formulated utterance in a five-period week.

If, furthermore, we study the text of these independently-formulated multi-word utterances, we find that they overwhelmingly tend to be either fragmentary, or incorrect English, or both. The

single instance in teacher 5's lesson is 'find it, sir', in line 83 (see page Ap. 116). In teacher 4's lesson, the first example, 'Gundappa was a cunning man', in line 6 (page Ap. 107), is substantially correct; the second, very extended, example, over lines 26 to 33 (pages Ap. 107-108), is incoherent and grammatically inaccurate; the final instance, lines 65 and 67 (pages Ap. 108-9) is fragmentary. Teacher 3's lesson shows the same characteristics (e.g. line 48, page Ap. 93, line 135 and line 144, page Ap. 96).

Therefore, on the evidence of these transcripts, pupils' productions in comprehension lessons tend to be few in number, frequently incorrect or fragmentary. They do not appear to reflect the structure which has been taught, and which they should presumably be aimed at activating. Furthermore, the teachers do not appear to find this strange. They do not appear to lay much stress on grammatical correctness in deciding whether to accept or reject a pupil's response.

10.4 THE CHARACTER OF THE TEACHER'S CONTRIBUTIONS

10.4.1 Setting the Level of the Task

Teachers' questions are important in setting the apparent level of the task. An attempt was therefore made to classify them, in terms of the apparent demand and the actual demand, as indicated by what answer the teacher accepted, and what help he or she gave the pupils. The results of this can be found in table 10c for teacher 4, and 10d for teacher 5; but for teacher 3 the attempt was defeated, both by the much larger number of questions asked by teacher 3, and by that teacher's habit of using long and complex sequences of questions - so that it was impossible to decide what was a question, what a repetition, what a rephrasing, and what a supplementary question. This made it impossible, for this teacher, to determine how many questions she had asked, or where one ended, and another began.

Virtually all of the questions asked by all teachers were of the level three types - 'metaquestions' were almost absent. They cover several levels of difficulty; several paraphrase the text; a number demand summary of a quantity of text; and some demand a judgement or an inference. Only a few demand no more than matching. This is unexpected, given the generally low standard of attainment on paper-and-pencil comprehension questions. There are, however, few questions that ask about motivation, and none that ask for predictions - 'what would happen if ...'. Although the teaching items for the 'Gundappa' lesson include 'should' and 'ought', there are no 'should' or 'ought' questions.

TABLE 10.C - ANALYSIS OF QUESTIONS USED BY TEACHER 4

<u>Question</u>	<u>Apparent Demand</u>	<u>Answer Accepted</u>	<u>Help given</u>
Revision 1 - What type of a man was Gundappa?	read title and transform	transformed title	none
Rev 2 - How did Gundappa satisfy his hunger?	summary	summary	picture + questions about identity
Picture 1 - Why is he waving the gunny bag?	summary	I don't Understand sir	picture + questions then supplies summary n.b. line 84 - pupil's interjection
Picture 2 - Is he converted from ass, this Patel?	Yes/No	No	none before; then amplifies pupil's response with extended summary
Reading 1 - What did Ranga tell the Patel?	summary	Patel ... Shivalli ... Panchayat Hall	answer already given by teacher in lines 104-108 Teacher supplies summary type answer
Rdg. 2 - What did Patel do ...	summary	tha Patel asked ... asked	i. takes 'Shivalli' (L.135) and incorporates it ii. points to place where pupil should read from iii. reads it himself

TABLE 10.c (Contd.)

<u>Question</u>	<u>Apparent Demand</u>	<u>Answer Accepted</u>	<u>Help given</u>
Rdg 3 - What did Ranga tell Gundappa on his return?	summary	various confused	i. encourages (1.149) ii. changes 'tell' to 'ask' (1.151) iii. supplies 'change his' (1.152) iv. supplies 'the Patel into' (1.155) v. supplies 'again ...' (1.157) vi. asks pupils to repeat answer
Rdg 4 - How much money did Ranga give Gundappa?	specific amount+ structural transformation	various confused	i. encourages (1.166) ii. attempts summary (lines 168-178)
True/False 1 - The Patel of Shivalli was an ass	of picture on 2 - answer given	false	repeats full answer after accepting pupil's response
T/F 2 - Mischievous boys threw stones at Ranga	check text and transform	true	accepts

TABLE 10.c (Contd.)

<u>Question</u>	<u>Apparent Demand</u>	<u>Answer Accepted</u>	<u>Help given</u>
T/F 3 - Gundappa gave Rs 500 to Ranga	word order	false	leads; 'who gave Rs 500 to whom?' and 'But the sentence says ...'
T/F 4 - Gundappa left the village	check final paragraph	true	i. selects answer he wants ii. supplies full form sentence

Teacher completes class by asking pupils to write down in their notebooks the sentences on the blackboard (i.e., the answers to some of the questions (line 231-234)).

TABLE 10.d - ANALYSIS OF QUESTIONS OF TEACHER 5

<u>Question</u>	<u>Apparent Demand</u>	<u>Answer Accepted</u>	<u>Help given</u>
Qn 1 - Who is this story about?	read title	Whang, sir	none, except to make a full sentence
Qn 2 - What kind of a man was Whang?	summary/ judgement	Quote from text - 'he was by nature ...'	i. rephrase question to bring it close to sentence in text ii. direct pupils to precise line
Qn 3 - What did Whang hear about his neighbour?	transform/ paraphrase text	quote from text	-
Qn 4 - Was he happy to hear about the news?	find sentence; confirm/ disconfirm	unhappy	i. accept; ask pupils to repeat ii. expand
Qn 5 - What did Whang dream about?	transform/ paraphrase text	quotation	i. accept; draw pupils' attention to place ii. start reading text; ask pupil to continue
T/F 1 - Whang was a rich man	inference	guesses	i. is it true? (restate method of responses ii. 'was he?' cast strong doubt in pupil's attempt iii. select answer he wants; ask for justification iv. point directly to place in text

TABLE 10.d (Contd.)

<u>Question</u>	<u>Apparent Demand</u>	<u>Answer Accepted</u>	<u>Help given</u>
T/F 2 - Whang's neighbour dreamed about the treasure 3 times	Matching with text	Correct	Accept and quote
T/F 3 - Whang did not reveal his dream to anyone, even his wife	Matching with text	Guess	i. selects answer he wants ii. directs pupils attention to place in text iii. reads text to them
T/F 4 - There was a pan of money under the broad flat stone	Choose between Whang's belief and author's statement of fact	Confusion/ guess	i. direct attention to place ii. question - was there money? iii. summarise relevant section iv. rephrase final sentence

TABLE 10.e - ANALYSIS OF DIRECT SUPPORT GIVEN BY
TEACHERS 3-5.

<u>Stage</u>	<u>Type of Support</u>	<u>Teacher</u>		
		3	4	5
initial	questions on blackboard read by teacher	✓		
	questions oral - repeated verbatim			✓
'context- ualising' support	pictures on blackboard	✓	✓	
	questions about characters, situations, details in pictures	✓	✓	
support where there is partial or total failure	i. repeats question		1	
	ii. draws attention - 'listen carefully', 'look in your book', etc.	4		
	iii. incorporate pupil's attempt; in order to encourage (even where wrong)	2	1	
	iv. rephrases question to bring it closer to text			1
	v. breaks question down into series of smaller questions	1		
	vi. rephrases question as one or more 'yes-no' questions	3		
	vii. restates method of response	1		
	viii. supplies part of answer		2	
	ix. draws attention to significant feature of question	1	1	
	x. indicates that answer is drawn from wrong place in text	2		
	xi. directs attention of pupil to correct part of text	1	1	5

TABLE 10.e (Contd.)

<u>Stage</u>	<u>Type of Support</u>	<u>Teacher</u>		
		3	4	5
	xii. supplies summary containing answer		4	
	xiii. reads from text			2
	xiv. selects answer from several offered		1	1
	xv. makes clear that pupils have chosen wrong alternative (then accepts other alternative when offered)	2	3	1
	xvi. amplifies response with extended summary	4	2	1

Therefore, an opportunity is missed to integrate the teaching items into the comprehension lesson. It would have been easy to raise moral issues in a text like this, and ask questions about what Gundappa or the Patel 'should' or 'ought to' do; and it is difficult to practise conditionals, for instance, if one cannot ask 'what would happen if ...'.

The real level of the task is reduced below that of the apparent level. First, the teacher does not tend to insist on a full answer to his question. He normally accepts a quotation from the text, without the modification that would make it an appropriate answer to the question. This is most typical of teacher 5, as can be seen from table 10d; but teacher 3 is also willing to do it; and teacher 4 is even prepared to accept less than a full quotation (cf. line 134-143).

Second, the teachers use various kinds of devices to help the pupils, when they do not answer rapidly. Table 10c summarises these devices, for all three teachers. They can be further grouped, into four basic categories:

- i. encouragement - i.e. categories ii. and xvi. - teacher does not give actual help, but a form of exhortation.

- ii. simplification - i.e. categories i, iv, and ix. - teacher makes task itself easier either by reducing the demands or by easing problems of understanding demands.
- iii. directing pupils' attention - i.e. categories v, vii, x, xi, and xv. - teacher either makes explicit the demands of the question, or draws pupils' attention to a specific feature of it, or draws their attention to a place in the text.
- iv. evasion - as in categories ii, vi, viii, xii, xiii, and xiv - teacher avoids the actual question, for example by substituting for it a series of non-questions, selecting the answers he wants from random answers, or accepting a wrong answer, or simply giving the answer himself.

The most striking example of this is teacher 3. She makes use of two sets of pictures, depicting the events she is asking about; gestural information; carefully-sequenced questions, even subdividing the text (because part of the lesson is revision); repeating questions; and supplementary questions which direct pupils' attention to the relevant part of the text. Each of these serves, in Pyrczak's (1972)

phrase, to make the task of 'comprehension' in the classroom more 'text-independent', than it would otherwise be. Presumably a 'caring' teacher set out to give pupils as much help as she could; in comprehension, however, the effort is misguided. The help which is given increases the pupils' dependence upon the teacher, rather than their ability to cope with unseen text.

Thirdly, in a 35-minute lesson with a class of fifty, it is impossible to put pressure on all class members by oral question-and-answer. The teacher is in a quandary. Either he can put questions to the class as a whole, and accept answers from the more able class members; or he can ask the less able class members specifically, and get a slow and difficult lesson. Most teachers accept a compromise of some kind; for one thing, if a pupil who is asked a question cannot answer it, other eager pupils will step in; and it is difficult for the teacher to insist on the class waiting for a slow pupil to answer. This can be seen in action from table 10f, which tallies pupils responding to teacher 3's questions. In the block of twenty-five questions that was tallied, five pupils answered questions; of these five, two were clearly dominant; the remaining forty-plus made no apparent effort to answer questions - and in one case noted (transcript 3, lines 132 et seq.) where

the teacher asks a specific pupil to answer a question, the pupil pointed to remains silent until one of the 'five' answers, and then repeats that pupil's answer. The typical response of the teachers, to ask the pupils to write the answers down in their notebooks, has two main defects; first, the notebooks are seldom checked, and therefore the task can become purely nominal - and second, it puts stress on the product, not the process, of the question-and-answer.

TABLE 10f

PUPILS RESPONDING TO 25 QUESTIONS ASKED BY TEACHER 3

<u>Pupil's position in class</u>	<u>Number of Questions</u>
Bench one right - pupil 1	3
Bench one right - pupil 5	4
Bench one left - pupil 2	3
Bench two right - pupil 1	8
Bench three left- pupil 1	7

Benches numbered from front to back - teacher's left and right; approximately ten benches, arranged in two blocks either side of a central aisle, with five or more pupils per bench.

The result is not individual pupils working on tasks with a text supplied, but pupils pooling and copying answers to questions.

A fourth way in which the challenge is reduced is to be found in the teachers' activities restating and amplifying pupil answers. This takes various forms, e.g.:

- i. the restating of a pupil's answer as a full sentence; as in teacher 1, lines 11-12, teacher 4, lines 18-19 and 52-54, and teacher 5 lines 3 4, 27-28. The teacher takes an answer, comprehensible but more or less fragmentary, such as "Good morning", and turns it into a full sentence, 'You said "Good morning"'. This may as in this case be due to lack of expression on the part of pupils who cannot formulate a full sentence, or it may in fact be less reasonable, taking a response that is in fact quite adequate, and expanding it - 'Whang the Miller' rephrased as 'This story is about Whang the Miller', for example.
- ii. amplifying something produced by pupils - as for example teacher 2, lines 36-37. An answer is accepted, and added to ; justified or expanded.
- iii. completing something started by a pupil - as for example teacher 4, lines 143-144.

The teacher, for impatience or some other reason, takes over and completes a sentence.

- iv. a teacher takes what a pupil has said, and builds on it - as for example, teacher 3, lines 176-182, or teacher 4, lines 127-133. Frequently, a teacher picks up something a pupil has said, which is not part of the desired answer, and attaches the intended answer to it in some way - or perhaps uses it to guide the pupils.
- v. teacher takes what a pupil has said, and rephrases it - as for example, teacher 3, lines 31-33. In some cases, it may be simply a matter of 'saying something properly'; it is more likely, as in this case, to be that there is a model, for example a dictionary definition, which the child does not produce, and the teacher does.
- vi. redirecting the pupil's attention, as in teacher 3, lines 196-200, where the guesses produced are taken, and combined, to lead to the desired answer.

- vii. arriving at a 'corrected' version. As for example lines 133-147 of teacher 3. In this specific case, the teacher wants to draw attention to the fact that she does not simply want a quotation, but a re-casting of the sentence to the form appropriate as an answer to the question; but without making an explicitly grammatical point.

Such methods, of course, are not intrinsically bad.

They are in common use. For comprehension teaching, however, they have three main disadvantages:

- i. there is an exaggeration of the importance of the final form of the answer, rather than the means by which it is arrived at. Pupils will tend to concentrate their attention on the final form, and not worry about how it is arrived at.
- ii. pupils are not forced to produce a final form of answer; they can rely on the teacher. Therefore, the pressure is taken off them, and they can relax; guessing is encouraged, because the teacher will do the bulk of the work, and

a guess is seldom penalised relative to a serious try. Pupils are encouraged to contribute, but the quality of their contribution is by no means guaranteed.

- iii. there is pressure on the teacher instead, to supply the answer. As a result, as in teacher 1, lines 139-153, teacher 2, lines 203-209, and teacher 4, lines 146-162, the teacher can easily be forced by the pupils to supply all, or almost all, of the answers, which pupils then repeat.

A final way in which the apparent demands of the task are reduced in practice is the emphasis that the teachers put on thorough learning of a small number of points. Certain central points get repeated attention, both between teachers - in teachers' questions and text questions for example - and between different sets of questions asked by the same teachers. An example of this can be found in 'How did Gundappa satisfy his hunger on the day of his leaving Shivalli?' This is found in the questions at the end of the text (see Appendix 11 p. Ap. 125), and in the revision done by both teacher 3 and teacher 4. It is not however of itself an especially important point; it is only important because it explains how he became a holy man. None of the teachers, however, tackles this point which could

be done in several ways - 'why did he stay in the temple?' for example, or 'why did the villagers think he must be a holy man?' or even 'why did they put the prasadam in front of him?'

The effect of this is that the same point is covered in several ways. It can be seen in the different sets of questions used by teacher 3. The second set, the true/false questions, in fact all cover material which has been explicated before, and indeed was the subject of direct questions. Table 10g makes this clear. In all cases, the subject matter of the questions goes back to questions asked in the earlier set of questions:

TABLE 10g

SUBJECT MATTER IN TRUE/FALSE QUESTIONS - TEACHER 3

True/False Question	Line number of previous treatment in a direct question
1. The villagers treated Gundappa as a holy man	Line 213
2. Gundappa did not want to take revenge on the Patel	Line 245
3. Ranga believed that Gundappa could change his ass into a man	Line 274
4. Gundappa refused to comply with Ranga's request	Line 292
5. Gundappa changed Ranga's ass into a man	Line 307

Thus, the effect of these questions must be to focus the pupils' attention on a limited set of points, and to give these points an importance out of all proportion to their place in the text. It must also be to reinforce the notion of a text as a source for a limited range of questions, and of knowledge of the text as paramount in passing examinations.

10.5 CONCLUDING

- i. the ratio of teacher to pupil-talk is about the same as for the structure lessons - four teacher utterances to one pupil utterance.
- ii. the length of the pupil utterances is also broadly similar. about three out of four are of two or fewer words.

Therefore, the comprehension lessons, no less than the structure ones, are dominated by the teachers, and it is the teachers' view of the task that will prevail.

- iii. the questions asked are mostly type 3, rather than, as in the structure lessons, type 4. The apparent demand is high, but the range of questions is restricted to summary/paraphrase of the text. There is little stress on inference, judgement or interpretation.

- iv. the activation of recently-learnt language items is given no apparent priority.
- v. teachers' fall-back strategies when pupils fail to answer the questions do not reflect the demands of the question, or any idea of desired strategies. Instead, they involve ways of accelerating the group's arrival at the answer, by increasing the support, directing pupils' attention to the location of the answer, or substituting leading questions, so that the pupils only have to agree with the questioner rather than find an answer.

Therefore, there is evidence of a confusion between teaching and testing comprehension. The questions asked are of an essentially testing kind; in that the teachers do not have fall-back strategies that will increase pupils' skills, should they fail to answer the questions. Instead, they encourage pupil-teacher negotiation, at the expense of pupil-text negotiation. Furthermore, the questions asked fail in two significant particulars; they do not probe a wide enough range of the skills necessary for efficient comprehension; and they do not help pupils make the transition from the introduction of new language to its use in reading.

- vi. as would be expected, pupils are much more likely to be asked to formulate a response for themselves than in structure lessons.
- vii. teachers, however, give pupils a great deal of support in this; probably more than they realise. It is common for the pupil to have to produce only the key words of the response; and the teacher to do the majority of the work.
- viii. at least one of the teachers also depends upon a small minority of the class for her answers.

Because the pupils receive so much support and encouragement, and especially where not all the pupils are involved (as is very likely with a class of fifty), it is easy to confuse agreement about the answers to the questions with ability to answer them. In fact, during each of the lessons, a majority of the pupils did not answer any questions demanding them to formulate an answer - there simply weren't enough questions - and where answers were arrived at, the teacher had a major role in the process. There is simply no guarantee at the end of such a lesson that even a minority of pupils could formulate answers to the questions unaided. That being so, and on the evidence cited in the earlier part of this study, the

demands of the task are unrealistically high.

- ix. there is remarkable overlearning of relatively few points. where the number of questions is large, the same point may get covered several times at different stages, or in different formats.

This reinforces the idea that the emphasis is on product - the learning of facts from a story - rather than process - the learning of skills for extracting facts from any story.

CHAPTER XICONCLUDING THE OBSERVATIONAL PHASE

In addition to the conclusions already given, the observational phase suggests several issues for further investigation:

- i. does the use of non-meaningful devices for practice of new language in fact lead to total disregard of meaning? If so, it suggests that such practice may not generalise readily to meaningful use.
- ii. does the use of situational presentation to explain the meaning of structural patterns in fact lead to a failure to master the patterns? If so, this may suggest a failure to grasp the need for the pattern.
- iii. can we demonstrate that the learning, when it does take place, is in fact not so good as it is intended to be? For example, can we show that a highly rule-bound activity is not done in any particularly insightful way, but that the rules are simply applied without much judgement?

- iv. can we demonstrate that there is a variable degree of success in the situational presentation? If so, some kind of check on learning becomes essential.
- v. does the overlearning of facts from a text in fact produce ability to answer similar questions, or paraphrases of similar questions, in future?
- vi. does the overlearning generalise the ability to answer other questions, e.g., about motivation?

In addition, we have to discover a way to test pupils that will enable us to develop at least a crude ranking or division into top and bottom halves; a test that is not unfair to the pupils, but at the same time does test something that outsiders will recognise as highly language-related.

The final phase of empirical work will aim to do all these; and where possible, to provide confirmation of earlier findings.

PART IV - FURTHER TESTINGCHAPTER XIITESTS OF STRUCTURE12.1 INTRODUCTORY

This chapter covers three tests of structure, relating to issues raised in chapters 9 and 11. All are similar to typical exercises used in the teaching and testing, but with variations.

12.2 THE SUBSTITUTION TABLE TEST

In chapter 11(i) it was suggested that the overuse of non-meaningful devices for practice would lead to poor learning, because pupils were excluded from the possibility of either producing wrong forms, or using language to express meaning.

The stated aim is to maximise practice of correct forms, and thereby develop sound habits of correctness; but it might have the opposite effect. Pupils who are not given the opportunity to make errors might in fact be likely to pay less attention to correctness, because it appears to come automatically. Similarly, the removal of the struggle to express some meaning may increase the number of times the structure can be 'sounded'; but it may divorce any resulting fluency from the subsequent natural use of language to

express meaning. Therefore, a test was devised to study how pupils deal with substitution-type tasks. The objective was to assess the amount of attention pupils pay to the substitution-type tasks they do - whether they are actively making selections which are meaningful, or merely taking things at random (or some intermediate stage). The rationale for this test is that, if in the substitution table itself, pupils do not notice when they are constructing non-meaningful sentences, it is unlikely that the exercise-type will produce an awareness of the expressive power of language. In addition, if the table can include the possibility of making non-grammatical sentences, and if pupils do so, this will suggest that the form of the table does not enforce sufficient attention to correctness for a sense of correctness to develop. Such a test cannot demonstrate categorically that the non-meaningful task does not develop language; but it can demonstrate that pupils' attention is not engaged by the task - and hence that it is likely that the level and amount of learning are not high.

12.2.1 Method

A substitution table was constructed, having four columns, each with four alternatives. Such a table is one of the most commonly-used drill devices - both teacher 1 and teacher 2 use it, and it is common in

virtually any English textbook. Structural complexity was avoided, in the hope that pupils would be able to understand all the possible sentences. The lexis was also kept simple and personal - 'men', 'woman', 'boy', 'baby', 'eating', 'washing', 'school', 'home', 'sarees', 'fruit'.

The grammatical difficulty that was built in was a very simple one - singular/plural subject/verb agreement - and the conflicts of meaning introduced were of a clear if homely kind - 'washing a song', or 'learning sarees', and so on. The test can be found in Appendix 13, page Ap. 129. Instructions were given in English in the test, and repeated in Kannada by an invigilator. The test was administered under normal classroom conditions; two invigilators were present, and there was no pressure of time.

12.2.2 Results

88 pupils were present for the test. A detailed answer pattern can be found in Appendix 13, pages Ap. 130 to Ap. 135.

Almost all the pupils made the full quota of five attempts. There were a total of 17 'non-responses' out of a possible (88x5=) 440. This is therefore seen by pupils as an easy task.

Responses were tabulated, and coded according to whether they were grammatical or not, and whether they made 'good sense', 'weak sense' or 'nonsense'. For example, 'The baby is washing sarees in the river' is weak sense; 'washing a song' is clearly nonsense.

There are $(4 \times 4 \times 4 \times 4) = 256$ possible combinations from the table. Table 12a. classifies all the possible responses in both these dimensions; table 12.b summarises the subject/verb agreement aspect; and table 12.c summarises the meaningfulness aspect. These show that if a pupil aims at both good sense and grammatical correctness she has 35 available sentences, 14% of the total; if she concentrates solely on sense, and ignores grammar, she will have 57 to choose from, or 23% of the total; if she disregards sense, and concentrates solely on grammar, she will have available 162 sentences, or 63% of the total.

Tables 12d through 12f contain the 'observed' results, to compare with the 'expected' ones. Of the 423 attempts made, 42 were classed as nonsense, and 50 as incomplete; figures in the tables are given as percentages of both 423 and $(423 - 50 - 43) = 331$.

There is no reason on the figures as given to suppose that pupils' selections were significantly influenced by considerations of grammatical correctness. The

TABLE 12.a - POSSIBLE COMBINATIONS FROM THE TABLE

		Number	%
subject-verb agreement	nonsense	99	39
	weak sense	26	10
	acceptable sense	35	14
no agreement	nonsense	63	25
	weak sense	11	4
	acceptable sense	22	8

TABLE 12.b - SUMMARY (i)

subject-verb agreement	160	62.5
no agreement	96	37.5

TABLE 12.c - SUMMARY (ii)

nonsense	162	63
weak sense	37	14
acceptable sense	57	23

ratio of correct to incorrect in table 12.e is almost exactly the same as in table 12.b. This suggests that pupils made no attempt to avoid the grammatical error. Therefore, the activity characteristic of what Krashen (1981) calls the 'monitor' - conscious application of rules - did not take place.

Meaning, on the other hand, did have an influence.

The observed proportion of nonsensical selections was about two-thirds of what would be predicted by chance

TABLE 12.d - ANALYSIS OF PUPILS' SELECTIONS

		number	% o/all	% responses
subject-verb agreement	nonsense	74	17	22
	weak sense	35	8	11
	good sense	107	24	32
no agreement	nonsense	67	15	20
	weak sense	7	2	2
	good sense	41	9	12
other	incomplete	50	12	-
	indecipherable	42	9	-
	no response	17	4	-

TABLE 12.e - SUMMARY (i)

subject-verb agreement	216	49	65
no agreement	115	26	34

TABLE 12.f - SUMMARY (ii)

nonsense	141	32	42
weak sense	42	10	13
good sense	148	33	44

alone, and the proportion of 'good sense' selections was increased accordingly. This is a large gain, and has to be taken seriously. However, even so, more than half the sentences produced do not fall into the 'good sense' category.

Therefore, where there is an automatic response to the selection process, for these pupils it works on meaning, rather than grammatical correctness. Even for meaning, however, it is limited in scope. This suggests that the overall effect of the substitution procedure, with these pupils at least, may not be to produce an automatic habit of grammatical correctness.

Tables 12.g and 12.h give some additional information about the way in which pupils selected their sentences. Table 12.g contains the twelve most common sentences. Twenty-six pupils - more than one in four - took the example - 'the woman is eating cooked chicken at home' - as one of their sentences. This might seem like sharp practice; but staff at the RIESI did not think so. Two other sentences in the twelve are the same as the example, but with the first element changed - 'the men' and 'the baby' substituted for 'the woman'. Of the remaining nine two are amongst the four sentences in Table 12.h - sentences found by reading straight across one line of the table (the other two such sentences are almost equally frequent). Of the remaining seven, one - 'the men is learning fruit and nuts in the river' is the same as one of the four sentences in Table 12.h, but with the first element changed.

Thus, pupils do not put a great deal of effort into selecting sentences, in many cases. The line taken

TABLE 12.g - THE TWELVE MOST COMMON SENTENCES

The woman is eating cooked chicken at home	concord	sense	26
The baby are selling sarees at school	no conc.	nons.	13
The baby is learning a song at school	concord	nons.	12
The boy is learning a song at school	concord	sense	11
The men are selling fruit and nuts outside the school	conc.	sense	11
The men is washing sarees in the river	non conc.	weak	10
The men is eating cooked chicken at home	no conc.	sense	9
The woman is washing sarees in the river	conc.	sense	9
The men is learning fruit and nuts in the river	no conc.	nons.	8
The woman is learning fruit and nuts in the river	concord.	nons.	8
The boy is eating fruit and nuts in the river	concord.	weak	8
The baby is eating cooked chicken at home	concord.	sense	8

TABLE 12.h - READING STRAIGHT ACROSS THE TEST TABLE

Sentence	Frequency
The men is washing a song at home	7
The woman is learning fruit and nuts in the river	8
The boy is eating cooked chicken outside the school	7
The baby are selling sarees at school	13

failure of these attempts that is perhaps too high - in addition to the 4% already noted, a further 21% made some kind of failure, either failed to write a complete

is frequently the most direct. However, the kind of automaticity that develops appears in this case to favour meaning to some degree; and grammaticality not at all.

12.3 'FORMING THE PASSIVE'

The 'substitution table' test showed that meaning was more important than grammatical correctness in determining pupils' selection of sentences; meaning in this case being a matter of collocation of lexis. It has also been suggested above (cf. Ch. 11(ii)) that the use of situational presentation to make the meaning of grammatical patterns clear from context may in itself be a disincentive to pupils' learning of these patterns, by making them redundant. We can test this by creating a task where the total meaning of a sentence can be inferred from the collocation of lexis; and this meaning determines which of two possible sentence patterns the lexical items have to be fitted into. If some support in the way of examples is given, so that the forced choice is clear to the pupils, then their reaction will reproduce their normal response to situational presentation. If they tend to use the context to work out the meaning of the structure, then they will tend to answer the items correctly rather than not. If, on the other hand, they tend to rely on the lexical meaning as a substitute for the grammatical meaning,

then they are much less likely to be able to use it to arrive at the correct grammatical form or pattern for the sentence.

12.3.1 Method

A variety of forms and patterns were considered. Structure words were rejected as being too often interchangeable within the context of a single sentence; verb tenses as being realised in too big a variety of ways - 'future tense', for example, can be expressed by present simple or present continuous, often without change of meaning; future tense itself can be used to realise assent, intention, etc. as well as future time. A suitable distinction, however, is the active/passive one; the same meaning can be expressed in either active or passive by a simple change of order; the structure of the passive is particularly attractive, consisting as it does of verb forms and a preposition ; so that we can see both whether serious attempts are made to form the passive when the meaning inferred from lexical collocation demands it, and whether (as we should predict from the translation test (chapter 6)) the pupils have greater success in producing the preposition than the verb forms.

Therefore, a test was produced of five items, of the form:

Noun Phrase Verb Phrase Noun Phrase

Pupils were asked to complete the verb phrase in either active or passive form, as determined by the meaning of the lexis. An example was given of the same proposition in both active and passive forms.

There were five items in the test:

Item 1: a passive sentence; either with or without 'by'.

Items 2 and 5: a pair using similar lexis; one active and the other passive.

Item 3: a passive with 'by'. The sentence was drawn from the textbook, and should be familiar to some at least as an example they have worked.

Item 4: a passive without 'by'.

The lexical items chosen were simple and well-known - 'Arya Bhavan', a well-known local shop, 'Taj Mahal' and 'Shah Jehan', 'buses', 'house', 'burn', 'sell', 'sweets', etc. in order that there should be no problem of word meaning. All instructions, except the examples, were given in Kannada.

The full text of the test can be found in Appendix 14, page Ap.136. The test was administered to the two classess during a normal period, with two invigilators present, and under no pressure of time. The scripts

were collected and the responses tallied, noting in particular the presence or absence of 'by' (or related equivalent words such as 'at' or 'in', where relevant) and what attempt each pupil made at an appropriate verb form. The resulting answer pattern can be found in Appendix 14, pages Ap.137 to Ap.139.

12.3.2 Results

88 pupils took the test. Non-response varied between 6 for item 3, and 18 for item 4. This is intermediate between the levels typical of multiple-choice with these pupils, and free response.

The most common response was to transcribe the sentence without change. 36 pupils did this in item 1, 33 in item 2, 38 in item 3, 24 in item 4, and 28 in item 5. The difficulty is to interpret this figure. Are they pupils who are in effect making no attempt at all, but marking the paper to 'show willing'? Or are they pupils who for some reason expect this response to be acceptable, in spite of the two examples? Or perhaps pupils who don't even realise that the preposition, and the changes to the verb, are important? The natural inclination is to write these pupils off as non-participators; but that they do participate is clear, although their participation is at the lexical level. They might have tried to disguise their

inability to cope - in other cases pupils have often shuffled the order of the words, or put in random and imaginative verb endings; therefore there may be some grounds for suggesting that these pupils are so dependent on lexis that they cannot even think of the task set.

'By' was used by 16 pupils in item 1, 14 in item 2, 24 in item 3, 7 in item 4, and 7 in item 5. Item 3 may be a maverick, a result of pupils remembering the sentence from their textbooks. No pupil used 'in' in item 4, or 'at' in item 5. It may be that fewer pupils use 'by' in sentence 4 and 5 because the effect of the instructions and examples are wearing off; or because they have doubts about it in items where a more suitable preposition is possible. On the whole, the former seems the more likely; it should be noted that approximately equal numbers use 'by' in item 1, where it is appropriate, and in item 2, where it is not.

Table 12.i summarises the verb forms found. It shows that the most common response is to make no change at all - this had already been noted. Where an attempt is made to change the verb, the most common attempt is simply to add an auxiliary to the root - and by far the most common auxiliary added is 'was'. The next most common, though far behind, was 'was' plus verb plus '-ing'. There is nothing to suggest that

either form is particularly associated with either active or passive in the pupils' minds; although 'was+verb+ing' does seem to be found only with the verb 'sell'.

TABLE 12.i - VERB FORMS FOUND

Form	Frequency
verb root only - no change	163
root plus auxiliary - is, are or was	105
root plus -ing plus auxiliary	25
root plus past marker plus 'was'	15
root plus '-ing' - no auxiliary	4
root plus 'will'	4
erratic and unclassifiable	18
no response or indecipherable	106

12.3.3 Conclusions

There is a marked tendency not to change the item at all, but merely transcribe the words. No conclusive explanation can be provided for this.

'By' is used apparently indiscriminately; there is a falling-off from the early to the later part of the test, but no difference between items where it is needed and those where it is not.

Pupils do not try to copy the verb forms given in the examples; rather they use own grammar, such as it is.

This is surprising in view of their extreme dependence on quotation in comprehension tests, and their willingness to use the example as an answer in the 'substitution table' test. However, the range of verb forms used was so small, and so non-standard, that it simply cannot be explained in terms of the structural teaching. If pupils are exposed to a range of correct sentence patterns, how is it that what they produce is neither very diverse, nor correct? Lack of exposure to wrong language does not seem to have prevented the growth of an interlanguage here.

If this is so - if, that is, pupils are not absorbing correct language, but using the teaching as samples for their own grammar construction, then the situational introduction of language items will be actively hampering this process, by carefully selecting only those situations where the meaning is clear without the structure, and where language is not used to achieve any non-linguistic goal - ie, by supplying very poor samples.

There is no evidence from this test that pupils are developing the skill of interpolating structure according to lexical meaning. If the situational technique, inferring the meaning of structure from the situation, were effective, we should expect pupils to have developed considerable skill in this

area, and to be very practised in the task set, even if they were not familiar with the passive voice. That they are not indicates that their response to the structure teaching is not what is assumed.

12.4 THE 'RE WRITING' TEST

section 12.3 indicates that the use of a situation where the meaning is clear does not lead to pupils successfully completing the structural elements of a passive sentence, either from prior knowledge or from the two examples given. Another technique which is used, where sentences stand in a paradigmatic relationship to one another, is the transformation of the first sentence into the other.

It was suggested from study of the transcripts that this task is much more difficult for the pupils than perhaps the teachers believe it to be. When called upon to do an oral substitution, pupils, notably in transcript 2, had difficulty, not so much with the target structure, as with all the other small changes that had to be made.

The aim of situational treatment is stated to be to give pupils a grasp that goes beyond the merely mechanical, an intuitive, native-like competence. Evidence so far, however, leads one to doubt whether this will be so. Pupil behaviour appears to show a

certain reductivism, reducing a task to the bare essentials necessary to satisfy the teacher. It is therefore suggested that they will do that in this case, learning the basic transformations in a mechanical way, and the intuitive grasp will not be apparent.

12.4.1 Aims

The aim of this test was to study pupils' success with tasks which involve transformation of a sentence into another having a different surface structure, but substantially the same meaning. An example of such a task would be the transformation of direct to reported speech; or of sentence patterns using 'after' into ones using 'before' (or vice versa) - thus reversing the order of the constituents relative to the chronological order. It was hypothesised that pupils would show a mechanical rather than intuitive grasp of the task.

12.4.2 Method

A test was designed in a form already familiar to the pupils - the re-writing of sentences in a new pattern (cf. SSLC Paper II, Question 4, parts a, b, c and d: Appendix 1). For the present purpose, there was one variation in the instructions - instead of specifying e.g. the change from direct to indirect speech, the instructions for the present test give the first few

words of the re-written sentence. It was felt that this would make the task clearer.

Three structures were selected that are normally taught as transformations - direct to reported speech, sentences beginning with 'before' or 'after', and various forms of superlative. Difficulties built in were as follows:

Item 1 and item 4 were straightforward - first person to third, and either present simple to past simple (item 1) or future simple to either present to past continuous (item 4). These items were intended to give a standard for comparisons

Item 2: the first transformation is simple - first to third person, and no change of tense. The main difficulty is that there is a second transformation of the pronoun later in the sentence. Do pupils notice it?

Item 3: presents two problems. First, there is a problem of word order, because the pronoun occurs unusually late in the sentence. Second, the sentence chosen is one normally used for a different task - changing one superlative for another. Therefore, pupils may be misled by the sentence into doing the wrong thing.

Item 5: the transformation here is an unusual one, second to first person. There is also a change of word order, and insertion of 'if', in reporting a question. This has been covered in class; but may be too complex for the pupils.

Item 6: the problem here is no problem at all - the pronoun does not have to be changed.

Items 7 and 9: this is a pair; the teaching point is that in order to join two clauses describing two events which follow one another in time, using 'before', you have to put the second event first. In class this is practised using pairs of sentences, one to be transformed into the other. The point is simple, but apparently useless. Therefore, it is supposed that pupils will probably not make the effort needed to grasp it.

Items 8 and 10: three forms of the superlative, 'the most ... had ever ...', 'never ... as ... as ...' and 'never ... such ...' are transformed into one another - in essence, the first two are positive, the third negative.

The test was administered to the two classes. As usual, detailed instructions were given in Kannada, and explained by the two invigilators who were present. Pupils were under no pressure of time.

The scripts were analysed into 'serious' attempts, 'reorderings', and 'non-attempts'. Performance on all the testing points noted above was also tallied. The full answer pattern can be found in Appendix 15, pages Ap.141 to Ap.150.

12.4.3 Results

88 pupils were present for the test. table 12.j summarises the answer pattern.

TABLE 12.j - 'SERIOUS' AND 'PASSIVE' AND NON-ATTEMPTS

Item	Serious - some change in the original	Passive - reordering or transcription only	Non-attempt or indecipherable
1	47	19	22
2	41	20	27
3	36	25	27
4	39	24	25
5	37	29	22
6	48	15	25
7	32	18	38
8	20	19	49
9	32	8	48
10	5	30	53

In items 1 and 4, 42 and 38 respectively made an attempt to change the pronoun, of whom 41 and 34 respectively were successful. In item 2, where there were two pronouns to deal with, 41 changed the first,

but only 7 the second. Where the pronoun (item 3) involves gender, as well as change of person, 8 out of 31 chose 'he' instead of 'she'. Where the word order put the pronoun late in the sentence, 23 pupils changed 'that' to 'he'. Where second person has to be changed to first, 14 chose third person as against 4 who correctly chose first. Where no change at all has to be made, 24 still change first to third, as against 16 who correctly make no change.

In item 1, 25 pupils correctly managed to change the verb, out of 43 who made the attempt. In item 4, 39 tried; none succeeded. In general, where there was an attempt to make a change in a verb, it took the form of a move to past tense. The most common form this took was to add 'was' or 'had' to the verb. There was a significant number of such attempts.

Structure words received less attention. 'Yesterday' was changed to 'the previous day' (as taught) by nine pupils; 'tomorrow' was changed to 'the next day' by thirteen.

Where the form of sentence to be transformed from direct to reported speech was one used for a different transformation task, nine out of thirty-six attempts showed changes of word order associated with the 'distractor' task.

Items seven and nine showed slightly lower recall of the general task - 26 out of 32 attempts had removed 'then'. Recall is also shown by the large proportion of attempts where the order of the sentence is changed. However, general understanding of the task is poorer - overall, about five pupils do the task substantially correctly, and about fifteen more make changes that show an understanding of what is required, whereas about forty attempts had features which showed some grasp of the transformation from direct to reported speech.

Items eight and ten were too difficult. Only two of the scripts showed clear understanding of the task.

12.4.4 Conclusions

1. of the three patterns assessed, reported speech stimulated much the highest proportion of attempts, and particularly of successful attempts. This is the more striking in view of the much greater complexity of the transformation involved. This could be the result of much more time being devoted to the teaching of the direct-reported speech transformation; or it could be associated with the more purposeful character of the task - ie, whereas the other two structures involve transforming a sentence into another sentence having equivalent meaning, reported speech has a communicative purpose.

2. The proportion of pupils attempting the basic first or second person to third person transformation is about the same as that attempting the present to past tense verb transformation. This is rather better than pupils could manage on the 'forming the passive' test.

3. However, their transformations are routine. When the change had to be made twice, all but seven missed the second pronoun. When the change is not routine, only a few show real insight; the majority of attempts are still in the direction of third person. When the pronoun required is 'she' rather than 'he', 8 out of 31 attempts, about 25%, were still 'he'. When the sentence selected is typical of another transformation task, some are misled as to what they have to do, suggesting a specific training effect.

4. Therefore, pupils do not gain any unusual insight into the workings of the English language by whatever techniques are used to teach reported speech. The overall results are better than for the passive, suggesting that the technique is more effective, but they are essentially mechanical, based on the change from first to third person, and from present to simple past tense.

5. Further, the techniques are less effective, for whatever reason, with the other structures tested.

12.5 CONCLUSIONS

Evidence has been presented in this chapter relating to three aspects of structural teaching, and pupils' responses to them.

The use of the substitution table has been reviewed, and it was suggested that the repetition of meaningless sentences does not produce automatic grammatical correctness, because pupils' attention to the task is so light that they are prepared to produce grammatically incorrect sentences; they are on the other hand slightly less likely to produce nonsensical sentences, suggesting that when pupils' attention is disengaged, the automatic response is more likely to affect meaning than grammaticality. Intuitively, it seems unlikely that worthwhile learning of correctness can take place, where no attention at all is paid to grammaticality.

The use of a context that duplicates the target structure's meaning was also reviewed, by means of a test where pupils were asked to use the meaning of a sentence, derived from the meaning and order of the lexis, to complete the verb phrase. Although the structure was one that had been learnt, and there were clear examples of what had to be done, the pupils' attempts were little better than random. This seemed to indicate that where the situation

makes language structure unnecessary for understanding, pupils do not have the skills that would be necessary for effective language learning to take place from the duplication. Pupils' attempts at the task showed no understanding of how to use situation to complete sentence; it is therefore unlikely that they will make use of similar information from context to learn about new language, in the absence of some expressive need.

Finally, a highly paradigmatic task was studied, based on the transformation activities used to teach some kinds of structure. This kind of transformational task appears to have been more successful, where it was particularly appropriate, namely in transforming direct to reported speech. In other cases, where the transformation produced only equivalent sentences, it appears to have been less effective. Where it was successful, it produced routine transformations, rather than the special kind of native-like insight that was aimed at.

It is also noteworthy that an error-free environment does not, as postulated, lead to error-free production by the pupils. Their attempts at producing verb forms in the two tests where they had a chance to produce their own language were unorthodox, although made up of English elements. This suggests that their English

may not develop exclusively, or even primarily, by imitation, as had been postulated when the teaching methodology was developed.

Verb forms in particular show two characteristics:

- i. regularity: some of the incorrect forms are so common that they occur more frequently than the correct forms
- ii. heterodoxy: the incorrect forms (including those that occur more frequently than the correct forms) by definition could not have been acquired from the teachers (since teachers use only correct language).

These characteristics are inconsistent with the learning of language by 'absorption' of correct forms - errors should be random and rare - and strongly suggestive that pupil learning is in fact characterised by some kind of construction process relying upon the teacher to supply data, and having its own regularities. That is to say, instead of inductive learning of rules, these results appear to derive from, and indicate, the presence of some kind of 'interlanguage'.

CHAPTER XIII'WORD MEANING' TESTS A AND B13.1 INTRODUCTORY

It was noted in Chapter 11.3, that the presentation of vocabulary was normally undertaken through English, for fear of inappropriate mother-tongue alternatives being used, and in situations, so that the pupils could get the full contextual meaning of the words. Possible pitfalls were noted:

- i. the possibility of the context being inadequate for the pupils to get a sufficiently exact notion of the meaning of the word
- ii. possibility of the context being too difficult for the pupil to understand it precisely - especially the structural information.

Two tests were produced to look into both of these possibilities.

13.2 AIMS

The primary aim of these two tests was not to look at level of word understanding in terms of number of words known, but to try to find evidence of failure

to grasp the meaning of words, and to analyse the ways in which pupils fail, in an attempt to associate them with the way in which the word was taught. It was hypothesised that this could occur in several ways:

- i. complete failure; the word was for some reason above the level of the pupils' understanding.
- ii. a general grasp of the meaning of the word, but because of poor situationalisation not sufficiently specific to enable the pupil to produce precisely what the word means; she produces instead one of a set of related words, or a more general or more specific word in the same semantic area.
- iii. confusion as to the part played by the word in the sentence or sentences in which it has been encountered. The pupil has the correct semantic area, but fails to grasp the structural component of the word - and so gives it an altogether different specific meaning.
- iv. interchange of words, both equally possible in the context or contexts in which this item will have been seen. This is something which will especially affect major lexical items.

Hypotheses were also made about what kind of lexical items would be most vulnerable to this kind of failure:

- i. concrete words, especially nouns, will not be very vulnerable; it is easy, for example, to bring a flower into the class-room, and show it to the pupils, and tell them that it is a flower.
- ii. large, general verbs, especially action verbs like 'go', are not very susceptible to this phenomenon, because they are so general.
- iii. words describing or naming abstract things, feelings etc., or interactions between people, will be vulnerable.
- iv. words belonging to large classes of closely related words will be more vulnerable than words which belong to small classes, with larger 'gaps' between the meanings of the words.
- v. the greater the difference between the boundaries between words in the class of words in the target language, and the boundaries between the words in the

equivalent class in the mother tongue,
the more risk there will be of confusion.

Not all of these are immediately accessible to the kind of test that it was possible to produce and administer; they would require a much more extended study; in the case of category (v), especially, a contrastive study would be an essential preliminary. Therefore, it was decided to concentrate on words in categories (i), (iii), and (iv).

Some attention can also be given to the parts of speech produced by the pupil; whether they produce, for example, the root word, rather than any specific form-class making no distinction as called for by one test between form-classes, or alternatively, whether they produce one class consistently - e.g., nouns or verbs - or fail to produce, e.g., adjectives or adverb, producing instead the major classes of lexical items, nouns and verbs.

Such a test has to be context-independent, and therefore a test of single words. There are several reasons for this:

- i. any context serves to disambiguate the word. Where the word is entirely unseen, this could in itself make a useful study, and also a training device - both studying

how much knowledge pupils can gain about words from various types of context, and training them to extract maximum contextual information. However, for the present purpose, that would be too elaborate to be feasible; and the immediate aim is in any case to gain an estimate of the extent to which pupils have learned from the teaching given, rather than precisely what they learn from any specific type of context.

- ii. multiple-choice items require too much sacrifice of information to be used in this case. Any fixed set of alternatives demands that the test constructor prejudges the range of responses he is likely to get, and precisely which alternatives are likely to be attractive. He is also obliged by the form to suggest to the pupils what they want to write. Any results produced in that way are open to the charge that one 'led' the pupils to answer in a specific way.

Therefore, it was necessary to sacrifice the support gained from immediate context. This leads to the risk that pupils will fail to recognise the word

for some trivial reason, be misled by its shape, initial letters, or some other feature. This is regrettable, but cannot be avoided; and does not prejudice the results, as it would if the aim was to obtain an estimate of the true extent of word knowledge in the group. In this case, we can concentrate on the various attempts we get which show evidence of understanding of the word; and so long as the number failing to recognise it is not too great, they can be ignored. There will in any case be a further loss from the translation process from Kannada to English, where the translator fails to notice the true relationship between the English and Kannada words; but this again is acceptable; the aim is to stimulate variety, not to measure.

13.3 METHOD

Two tests were produced, one containing ten items, the other five. The reason for this division was purely the demands of time available for testing. The item format was to give an English word, and instructions to say what it means, using either English or Kannada. Instructions were given in Kannada.

All the lexical items chosen came from the detailed readers, and all had been introduced situationally, within a period of two to six weeks

before the test was given. The words fell into three basic categories:

- i. words thought to be simple - concrete nouns like 'gift' and 'crowd'.
- ii. words thought to be difficult because they are in some sense abstract - words such as 'dispute', 'terror', 'remain'.
- iii. potentially informative words. This was a varied category. It included words such as 'bride', where there is potential for confusion about the role in the marriage ceremony, words with a 'structural' component, mainly adjectives, and a few words that simply 'looked difficult', such as 'pleased'.

The full text of test A (10 items) can be found in Appendix 16, page Ap. 151; and of test B (5 items) in Appendix 17, page Ap. 154. Both tests were administered to the two classes during normal periods, under no pressure of time. Two invigilators were present.

The scripts were collected, and farmed out to two Kannada-speaking lecturers on the staff of the RIESI, to translate the Kannada attempts into English,

bearing in mind the kind of information sought. The pupils' attempts were tallied:

- i. for number of attempts, of any kind, made by pupils.
- ii. for number of attempts based on word shape, rather than meaning.
- iii. to see how close attempts were to the original word, where the attempt was related in meaning to the original word.
- iv. to see how much structural deviation there was from the original.
- v. to give a qualitative picture of the attempts.

For test A, this analysis can be found in Appendix 16, pages Ap. 151 to Ap. 153; for test B, in Appendix 17, pages Ap. 154 and Ap. 155.

13.4 RESULTS

Eighty-eight pupils took each test; however, they were not exactly the same eighty-eight, as the tests were taken on different days.

All the responses were in Kannada, so a heavy burden was put on the two translators. They would

have been very reluctant to check on each other's work, and so it was not possible to get the scripts double-marked. However, as Table 13a indicates, there was considerable variation in the number of 'indecipherable' attempts from test A and from test B. Since the total number of attempts was fairly constant, this suggests that the two assessor/translators had different standards of indecipherability. This is not unlikely, as there was a considerable interpretative element in the task; but it does mean that it is not possible to make a combined list or rank order of difficulty for the two tests. Whether it affects other aspects of the assessment cannot easily be said.

Level of non-response divides the items into two groups, as can also be seen from Table 13a. Items A1, and A6-10, and B5, form a 'high' group, and the rest of the items a 'low' group. This is not related to the division into 'easy' and 'difficult' words, and no internal explanation seems possible. Order may well play some part in explaining all but A1; A1 is intended to be a 'difficult' word, but certainly no more so than B1, or A4, both showing low non-response.

Table 13b gives a list of the most obvious errors arising from similarity of word shape or spelling. It does not claim to be exhaustive; there are other answers over which there could be

TABLE 13aNUMBER OF ATTEMPTS

<u>Question</u>	<u>Attempts</u>	<u>Including X indecipherable</u>	<u>Non- response</u>
A1	58	5	30
A2	78	12	10
A3	76	9	12
A4	80	14	8
A5	84	5	4
A6	67	40	21
A7	71	45	17
A8	52	25	36
A9	62	29	26
A10	65	35	23
B1	86	6	2
B2	86	1	2
B3	80	3	8
B4	82	1	6
B5	71	0	17

TABLE 13bWORDS SIMILAR IN SHAPE BUT NOT MEANING TO THE CORRECTANSWER

<u>ITEM</u>	<u>WORD</u>	<u>FREQUENCY</u>	<u>CORRECT ANSWER</u>
A2	friend	2	find
A3	Raman (Boy's name)	3	remain
	rain	2	"
	brain	3	"
A5	cows	8	crowd
	cloud	5	"
	crows	2	"
	crane	1	"
A9	turn	20	warn
	born	3	"
B2	place	16	pleased
	rage	2	rare
	rain	2	"
	roar	1	"
B4	lift	2	gift

some doubt as to whether they are arrived at through vagueness about meaning, or similarity of shape or spelling. On the whole, because the target words were recently taught, and the other words were not, it seemed to make sense to attribute them to meaning. Therefore, this table lists only words that are similar in shape or spelling, but not in meaning. It does not list words that are similar in both shape or spelling and meaning, or which are similar in neither. It will therefore tend to understate the problem a little; but since the aim is not to make a study of such words, but merely to guard against their interference, this is acceptable.

There are three items where this problem is of significance. In Item A5, there are a range of words, 'cows', 'cloud', 'crows' and 'crane' which together account for sixteen of the eighty-eight pupils. In A9, two words, 'turn' and 'born' account together for twenty-three responses; and in B2, 'place' accounts for sixteen. In other cases, the numbers are all much smaller.

Thus, the existence of this effect cannot be denied; and it will tend to reduce the efficiency of the test-type, where it is used as a proficiency test.

For the present purpose, however, it does not invalidate the test; the diversity aimed at is still present, although possibly reduced in extent because some pupils were misled.

Table 13c gives, for each item in the two tests, the number of responses, as an indicator of the range of guesses; and the number of pupils choosing the most common, as an indicator of central tendency, and the number choosing the most common response as a proportion of all valid responses. The mean number of different responses to a question is 7.4, standard deviation 4.01. The mean number choosing the most popular response to an item is 28.4, standard deviation 17.5. The mean percentage of all valid responses choosing the most common is 52.2. One of the items, A5, has only three responses given; two have four, five five, and two six. Thus, two-thirds of the items show relatively few different responses. B1 accounts for nineteen different responses, and the rest between eight and twelve. There is an association between homogeneity in this sense and agreement on one conspicuous response, as measured by percentage choosing most common response, but it is far from perfect. A5, with fewest responses, is in fact only fifth in number choosing most common response. Again, there are two groups - a group of seven, where 50% or less choose the most popular

TABLE 13cNUMBER OF RESPONSES AND NUMBER CHOOSING MOST COMMON

(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	(f)
<u>Item</u>	<u>No. of respons.</u>	<u>No. giving most common</u>	<u>%age of 88</u>	<u>No. of Pupils Picking a res. in (b)</u>	<u>(c) as a %age of (e)</u>
A1	8	33	37.5	53	62.2
A2	9	19	22	66	28.8
A3	10	11	12.5	67	16.4
A4	12	25	28	66	37.9
A5	3	55	62.5	79	69.6
A6	5	19	22	27	70.4
A7	4	20	23	26	76.9
A8	6	18	20	27	66.7
A9	4	20	23	33	60.6
A10	6	15	17	30	50
B1	19	12	14	80	15
B2	10	19	22	85	22.4
B3	5	59	67	77	76.6
B4	5	69	78	81	85.2
B5	5	32	36	71	45.1

alternative, of those choosing a viable alternative; and a group of eight items where more than 60% do so. It should be noted, however, that unanimity is no guarantee of correctness; in only three of these latter eight is the most commonly chosen alternative in fact the correct one. In seven of the fifteen items, in fact, the correct answer is chosen by none of the pupils.

An attempt was made to classify both the target words and the pupils' attempts according to form class. This was rather inaccurate on account of the difficulty of saying whether a decontextualised word is, e.g., a noun or a verb. In some case, the word had only been taught as one, and was noted as such in the table. In other cases, an arbitrary decision was taken. The resulting breakdown is found in Table 13d. The table fails to note the amount of variety of form-class amongst pupils getting the right answer; this was difficult to do, because so few pupils in most cases got the right answer. It does, however, give a fairly general picture of the extent of agreement amongst the pupils as to the form of the item. In all but three cases, the majority view is the same as the form class of the original word. However, this does not mean that pupils pay attention to syntactic information. The test covered only major lexical items.

TABLE 13dFORM CLASS OF GIVEN WORD AND PUPILS' ATTEMPTS

<u>Item</u>	<u>Form Class</u>	<u>Number of Attempts</u>			<u>Remarks</u>
		<u>Nn</u>	<u>Vb</u>	<u>Adj</u>	
A1	Adj	16	22	35	
A2	Vb	10	56	-	
A3	Vb	11	56	-	
A4	Adj	11	47	6	'Please' = 2 pupils
A5	Nn	79	-	4	'secret' treated as a noun
A6	Nn	6	20	-	'since' ignored
A7	Nn	24	-	-	'eagerly' = adv = 2
A8	Adj	1	5	21	'secret' = Adj
A9	Vb	9	23	1	'understanding' = Vb?
A10	Vb/Nn	2	23	-	'back' ignored
B1	Nn	58	23	-	'request' = Vb
B2	Adj	57	5	19	'kindly' = adj
B3	Adj	17	1	59	
B4	Nn	70	11	-	
B5	Nn	32	39	-	

This means that there is really very little choice available to the pupils; and the items may well not have been known to them in more than one form. Therefore, they may well only have known the correct form.

A detailed analysis was made of the individual items:

Item A1: 'gentle' is a word, that is not easy to pin down to specific action; but not so common nor so straight-forward to understand as 'kind', or 'good', or 'angry' for example. None of the pupils have fully understood the word, but there have been a number of serious attempts, based on the knowledge that it is a good characteristic of a person. A few of these - those choosing 'cleverness', and 'a good man' - have failed to reproduce the structural element of the stimulus word; and by far the largest number have chosen 'intelligent', which suggests a failure in the introduction process by the teacher.

Item A2: two different types of error are present - 'find out' and 'believe' are words that are reasonably close semantically to the stimulus word; 'rejoice' is presumably what you do when you find what you are looking for. 'Remain' may simply be a case of writing the word on the wrong line. Most of the

pupils are aware that a verb is called for - they do not, for example, confuse it with 'fine'.

Item A3: it might seem that 'return' is the result of pupils guessing using the general shape of the word; but compare Item A10, where the stimulus word actually is 'return', and no pupils get it correct. This suggests some kind of teaching effect; which has left pupils thinking that 'remain' means 'return' - rather than some kind of mistake over shape. Perhaps, they have been given situations, e.g. using 'I'll remain here', where there is some ambiguity over the crucial feature, whether he will be there during the interval, or simply go and come back.

Item A4: it is hard to say whether the failure is one of initial understanding - that pupils never grasped the difference between 'to help' and 'helpless' in the first place, or whether they have simply been careless in reading the item. In any case, most of the pupils think the word means 'to help', or 'to be helpful'; some think it means 'not to help'. Four have it correct, and five have it correct semantically but not syntactically. This suggests that the word has indeed been taught, and that pupils' semantic grip is generally weaker than one might suppose. Two pupils have 'weak', which is close semantically, but not correct - presumably failing to interpret the introductory situation accurately.

Item A5: 'crowd' is a concrete sort of a word; you can point to a crowd; and it presents almost no difficulty. Most errors are to do with word shape, rather than meaning.

Item A6: 'rags' is interesting, in that although pupils do not get the correct answer, all but two of those who make an attempt have understood something of the word semantically. One has understood that it has something to do with clothing, the remainder that it is associated with beggars. This suggests that the teaching has been only partially effective.

Item A7: 'bride' produces the same phenomenon. Pupils are not misled into supposing that the word was 'bridge'. All are aware that it has some part to play in a marriage, and their guesses reflect this. Therefore, the word has been taught, and produced limited recall, of this distinctive character.

Item A8: as with 'gentle', pupils have grasped approximately what the word means; in this case, something associated with 'not readily accessible'. Such a thing is indeed 'secret'.

Item A9: most of the responses are derived from shape, rather than semantics. Five pupils however produced 'danger' (of which you warn people), and three 'accident'.

Item A10: only one response, 'back', produced by five pupils, can really be said to be close to correct. This is the more striking in view of the number of pupils who put 'return' for 'remain'.

Item B1: this is the locus classicus of the word that pupils have understood, but with insufficient precision. It is a difficult word, one of a large group of closely-related words. There is a high level of serious attempts, and most of them are reasonable; but only nine are exactly correct. Thus, a difficult word have been introduced situationally, and the consequences have been unpredictable.

Item B2: this item is in some respect similar to 'helpless'. There is one major shape error, 'place'; but most of the attempts are 'kindly', or 'kindness' (the reason is not clear; whether it is 'please' = 'be kind' or 'kindly' = 'pleasing'); another sizeable group have 'praise', which may be either a shape error or a meaning one; and 'belief', which may be a sound error.

Item B3: 'rare' presents no problem to the pupils; this is unexpected.

Item B4: 'gift' again presents no problem. This, however, was predicted.

Item B5: It may be that the large number of correct responses in this case is inflated by the assessor. Of the wrong responses, 'shiver' has a clear association with terror; 'live' does not.

13.5 CONCLUSIONS

It is clear from this one pair of tests that teaching vocabulary is much more complicated than the teachers imagine.

- i. the overall level of attainment was very low.
- ii. easy words tend to be ones with clear meanings and no closely-related words to confuse - 'gift', 'crowd' and 'rare'.
- iii. difficult words are difficult for a variety of reasons:
 - a) in a few cases - 'warn' and 'pleased' - words similar only in shape are the main wrong answers.
 - b) some words are intrinsically difficult because they have numerous close relatives, and pupils select the wrong one, which is close enough to satisfy the demands of the situation. Examples of this are 'dispute' and 'gentle'.

- c) the attempt to infer meaning from context, while it produces something which fits in a great many contexts, is unsuccessful because the meaning produced is simply not correct - as in 'remain'.
- d) in some case, what is remembered is one of the major semantic features, but not all that is necessary - as in 'bride', where the element of 'marriage' is retained, but not 'human female', or her role in the marriage; or 'rags', where 'poverty' is remembered, but not 'clothing'. This might be due to inefficient remembering, but is more likely to be the result of inadequate grasp of the situation.
- e) mistaking the word for a similar one (i.e, perhaps remembering only one, and not the other) - as in 'pleased' or 'helpless' and therefore missing the meaning entirely.

In addition, there is a pronounced teaching effect apparent. Some of the errors are restricted to only one class of the two studied.

Therefore, situational teaching of vocabulary does have its pitfalls. The fact that errors can be traced after the words have apparently been fully learned, which can be readily associated with features of situational presentation strongly suggests that the machinery for generating the situations, and for ensuring an adequate supply, are inadequate. The task is in fact too complex to be left to teachers, to the extent that it is.

That these deficiencies can be so readily exposed by a simple vocabulary testing technique, not requiring any great skill in test construction, suggests further that the teachers' ways of checking learning are inadequate. Two reasons for this spring to mind:

- i. teachers simply don't check whether the meaning given to target lexical items agrees with, or is close to, the dictionary definition, or any other agreed standard of meaning. Instead, they are satisfied with apparently correct use. The range of occasions when the lexical item is used is small enough to make it a distinct possibility that misunderstandings will not become apparent.

ii. the testing devices used are insufficiently searching. Attractive as multiple-choice may be, it would not have been possible to gather these data using multiple-choice tests because:

- a) it is not sound practice (see Harris, 1969) to use heterogeneous distractors - i.e., you can't have 'shape' errors and semantic distractors together, because they will combine to point to the key.
- b) for writing multiple-choice items, you have to have a clear idea in advance of the likely wrong answers; and as has been seen, these can vary from class to class (depending upon the situations used).
- c) multiple-choice does not allow of a wide range of alternatives - thus one chooses distractors as a compromise; which will prompt some at least of the 'near misses' to choose the correct answer, as being the one nearest to what they think it really is.

CHAPTER XIVTHE FINAL TEST14.1 INTRODUCTION

The final test was rather heterogeneous in character. It combined certain things that had not been done:

- i. no attempt had yet been made to check out the difference between the more and less able, in the comprehension strategies they used.
- ii. the degree of success in retaining what had been covered in the comprehension lessons, the extent to which this recollection could be drawn on in answer to paraphrased questions, and to which it could be employed to solve problems, e.g., of motivation had also to be assessed.

If (i) above was to be done, the test had also to include some element that would make it possible to rank pupils, or at least divide them into two basic groups, on total score. In addition, an attempt was made to try out a few samples of material relevant to the changes in the teaching proposed in section 5(below).

14.2 METHOD

A test was constructed consisting of five major sections:

- i. a ranking test (items 1-12). The problem here was to find tasks which were acceptable as evidence of language ability, but which were within the pupils' ability. The solution adopted was:

- a) six items where pupils were presented with four words, and asked to choose the odd one out. For example,
a. rice b. bread c. wheat
d. ragi
- b) two items involving completion of recently-learned sentence patterns
- c) four vocabulary items where the answer could be guessed at from collocation, or arrived at by comprehension of the context.

For example,

The 'Deccan Herald' contains news, and also many (exploits/specialities/trinkets/advertisements) for shops and hotels.

- ii. a set of 'seen' comprehension questions (items 13-22)

- a) testing basic knowledge of the text:
Who was 'the cunning man'?
- b) factual points already covered, but
paraphrased:
When did the villagers learn the
truth about their schoolteacher?
- c) 'why' questions turning upon familiar
events
Why did the Patel not recognise the
gunny bag?

iii. a section of vocabulary items already seen taught in class (all from 'the Cunning Man' items 23-29); five single words, and two extended phrases.

Parts (ii) and (iii) were given in 'open book' form, so that pupils could refer if they wished to the original text, and did not have to remember the answers, e.g. so that they could confirm if they wished their judgements.

iv. a set of experimental structure items (items 30-35c). Part V of this thesis will contain recommendations for improvements to the teaching. The aim of these items was to see whether the activities proposed were at the correct level. They all demand the use of structural information,

some directly, as for example in answering a 'where' question; some indirectly, as for example when 'both' is taken as an indication of duality, where there are plural pencils.

- v. a set of experimental vocabulary items (items 36-39) these items are concerned with the ability to choose an adjective to characterise somebody, based on what they say.

A full text of the test can be found in Appendix 18, pages Ap. 156 to Ap. 160.

14.3 METHOD OF ANALYSIS

The test was administered under examination conditions. All 99 pupils were present. The scripts were then marked for correctness. In this case of the objectively-scored sections, this presented no problem; for the comprehension of seen text, anything was accepted that showed evidence of understanding and an attempt to make an answer that was suitable in form; for the vocabulary from the seen text, a native Kannada speaker had to be employed to translate the attempts into English; they were translated and marked by him.

The median script was then removed, to make the total number even, and the scripts were divided into two groups, top and bottom on total score. A detailed answer pattern was then prepared as follows:

Item 1-12: detailed answer pattern with facility values and discrimination indices

Item 13-22: a) for each half, a table consisting of: number correct, number of other attempts, and number of indecipherable/non attempts. Facility values and discrimination indices for correct answers.

b) for attempts: table showing number of attempts for each item and average number choosing each; how many were of more than one sentence in length, and how many were not quotations from the text (or were quotations with other than minor modifications).

c) how many attempts consisted of incomplete sentences; how many of these were terminated (i) sensibly; (ii) not sensibly

d) a detailed listing of attempts

Items 23-29: a) for each half, a table of correct answers, other attempts and number of non-attempts/ indecipherable. Facility values and discrimination indices for correct answers.

b) a breakdown of attempts, grouped as: semantically suitable, or related; syntactically correct; obvious error; other.

Items 30-35: a detailed answer pattern; facility values and discrimination indices.

Items 36-39: a detailed answer pattern; facility values and discrimination indices.

This analysis can be found in Appendix 18, pages Ap. 161 - Ap. 182.

14.4 RESULTS

Table 14a contains the average facility value for each of the groups of items, plus the average score on each section for top and bottom groups, and the average score overall for the two groups.

The facility level of the items designed to test efficiently is 37.5%; this is rather below the theoretically ideal level of 50%; but the nearest any other section gets to this is 22.3%, for items 30-35c. Thus, the 'ranking' items, 30% of the test items, account for nearly half the mean score.

Table 14b shows the average level of discrimination for the various sections:

the mean discrimination of the ranking items, at 0.354, is much higher than for any of the other sections. Thus, the ranking test could be said to have done its job, containing the bulk of the items that discriminate well between top and bottom groups. Two items in the remainder of the test have very high discriminations:

Item 15: why was Gundappa not a good school teacher? The answer is easily formulated, using the text as a major prop

Item 27: 'eatables': an apparently very easy word, and very concrete.

Item 33 also has a discrimination in excess of .4; and five, 23, 36, 31, 32 and 38, have discriminations in excess of 0.3. Two of these are text-based vocabulary items, and three from the more experimental structure and vocabulary.

14.4.1 The Ranking Test

Although the ranking test is too short to produce a reliable rank order, it is adequate for dividing the pupils into two broad groups, top and bottom; and as can be seen from tables 14a and 14b, it is the most important norm-referenced element in the test as a whole.

TABLE 14aFACILITIES AND SCORES

<u>Item</u>	<u>Mean Facility (%)</u>	<u>Top Half Mean Score</u>	<u>Bottom half Mean Score</u>
1-12	37.5	6.63	2.37
13-22	14.1	2.0	0.82
23-29	20.1	2.26	0.55
30-35c	22.3	2.55	1.02
36-39	18.4	1.06	0.41
total	24.0	14.51	5.163

TABLE 14bMEAN DISCRIMINATIONS

<u>Item</u>	<u>Mean Discrimination</u>
1-12	0.354
13-22	0.118
23-29	0.245
30-35c	0.191
36-39	0.163
total	0.227

14.4.2 Open Book Comprehension

Overall, this test was found very difficult. In spite of having the book to hand, after three periods on the text most pupils knew

- a) who was the cunning man
- b) why Gundappa was not a good school-teacher.

The first of these is the basic essential to any understanding of the story at all; the second in fact relates closely to an extended episode in the text although it is not a direct quotation.

On the other hand, pupils could not deal with paraphrased questions:

- a) when did the villagers learn the truth about their schoolmaster
- b) what did Gundappa do to Ranga's ass

Both of these paraphrase things covered, e.g., in teacher 3, lines 116-132 and lines 307-312.

'Why' questions also caused considerable difficulty:

- a) why did Gundappa want revenge on the Patel?
(This is covered in detail in the teaching, e.g. teacher 3, lines 237-242).

- b) why was Gundappa not happy in the temple?
 why did Ranga think the Patel would
 recognise him?
 why did the Patel not recognise the
 gunny bag?
 why did Ranga beat the ass?

Virtually no answers were given to any of these questions that could be marked as correct.

As can be seen from table 14c, there was a considerable diversity of wrong answers. It cannot be said that pupils were in general producing similar, though wrong, answers. They were probably mainly confused, and the availability of the text was of little help to them.

There are a total of 459 attempts, which are not either correct or indecipherable. Of these, 32 were not quotations, in whole or in large part. Therefore, pupils persist in using quotation in their attempts to answer these questions.

It can be seen from tables 14c, 14d, and 14e that there are systematic differences between the top and bottom groups:

- i. the top group are less likely to quote incomplete sentences, more than one sentence, or write nonsense.

TABLE 14c

NUMBER OF ATTEMPTS, LENGTH OF ATTEMPTS

RANGE OF ATTEMPTS, QUOTATION

<u>Top Half</u>				<u>Bottom Half</u>				<u>Key</u>
<u>It.</u>	<u>R</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>1+NQ</u>	<u>R</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>1+NQ</u>		
13	3	2.67	1 7	11	1.82	1 6	R= No. of different	
14	6	2.33	- 3	15	1.33	4 -	incorrect answers	
15	7	2.43	7 1	14	1.71	4 2	given	
16	13	1.85	5 -	24	1.29	10 -	N= average number	
17	16	1.5	2 4	19	1.53	5 1	choosing each	
18	13	1.62	1 1	18	1.55	5 0	incorrect answer	
19	14	1.57	3 3	31	1.38	5 0	1+= attempts quoting	
20	13	1.46	3 0	24	1.29	5 0	more than	
21	11	1.82	2 1	21	1.33	5 0	one sentence	
22	11	2.27	1 3	17	1.47	3 0	of text	
Total			25 23			47 9	NQ= attempts that are not wholly or mainly quotations.	

TABLE 14d

	(A) <u>No. of attempts</u>	(B) <u>No. of 1+ sentences</u>	(C) <u>No. of non- quotes</u>	<u>B as a % of A</u>	<u>C as a % of A</u>
Top half	194	25	23	12.89	11.85
Bottom half	265	47	9	17.73	3.4

TABLE 14e

	(D) <u>No. not full sentence</u>	(E) <u>No. not full sent. & nonsense</u>	<u>D as a % of A above</u>	<u>E as a % of A above</u>
Top half	43	14	22.16	7.22
Bottom half	101	59	38.11	22.26

- ii. the top group are more likely to produce an answer which is not a quotation
- iii. there is more agreement about the answer (even when it is wrong) in the top than in the bottom group.

On the other hand, there is no significant difference between the two groups in the number not responding.

14.4.3 'Seen' Vocabulary

The results for the vocabulary items based on the text are very variable. Two items are easy - 'cunning' and 'eatables'. The first of these relates to Gundappa in general; the second to a major episode in the story. It is therefore possible that the high proportion of pupils knowing them is a result of their prominence in the text, rather than connected with the procedures for introduction. Three items are very difficult - 'wandering', 'innocent' and 'curious'. These three are all far less prominent in the story as a whole - 'wandering' relates to a minor episode, 'innocent' to Ranga, and 'curious' to the Patel. They have, however, been used in the lessons - 'wandering' in teacher 3, line 35-39, 226-9; 'innocent' by teacher 3 in an exercise beginning line 421; and by

teacher 4 in lines 213-215. 'Curious' is introduced by teacher 4, lines 40-48; but not subsequently used. The contrast between the items that have 'taken', and those that have not, is therefore the more pointed. The introduction of the item is not enough; far more important, it seems, is the use to which the item is subsequently put.

The two phrases were moderately difficult:

- a) "I am crazy about films"
14 out of 41 attempts do not mention films at all. 13 of the remaining 27 make no attempt at translating the structure of the phrase, although they have the basic lexis.
- b) "They dragged him to the hospital"
6 out of 30 attempts make no mention at all of hospital, 14 of the remaining 24 contain no suggestion of movement, 7 more use only 'go', and have no suggestion of involuntary movement.

14.4.4. Experimental Structure Items

Over half the bottom group makes no attempt at all at these items. The performance of the top group on items 31-33 suggests that items of this kind would be a suitable starting point - i.e., items where

the question to be answered bears directly on the information given. The simplest of them, the 'where-' question, is well within the capacity of the top group; the two superlatives are more difficult.

Items 30 and 34 are too difficult for the group at this stage. Item 30 demands indirect use of a structural item - 'both' marks duality, and apart from the plural, is the only marker of number; but this is not its main purpose. Item 34 has a sentence structure that, although theoretically familiar to the pupils, does not overcome the more immediate collocation '..Sheela is wearing a hat'.

Similarly, on items 35a to 35c, the top group did not make any serious effort. The most common response was to quote a sentence - thus, they interpreted it essentially as a comprehension task. Therefore, there is little or no sign that the necessary skills for this item are developing.

14.4.5 Experimental Vocabulary

As with items 35a to 35c, items 36-39 were interpreted as a lexical matching, or 'comprehension' task. Thus, 38 was the easiest item, because 'home' was enough clue. Item 36 was very misleading because 'go' appears twice in what Rajan says, although the meaning is the opposite of what is required.

The remaining two items produced a poor response. Thus there is no positive evidence of the development of the necessary skills; they are being masked by unhealthy lexical matching.

14.5 CONCLUSIONS

- i. pupils' general grasp even of seen text is very limited. Even having studied the text for three periods, and having the book in front of them, does not help them to cope with paraphrase, or 'why'-questions.
- ii. the strategies used by the top half of the group are rather healthier than those used by the bottom half. Even the top half, however, use lexical matching in an attempt to solve the experimental structure and vocabulary problems, when the stem has more than one sentence in it.
- iii. the performance on the vocabulary test is lower than would be expected, given that all the vocabulary items have been introduced in the customary fashion (and evidence can be seen in the transcripts that this is so). There is some indication that the determining factor might

be the amount of exposure each item gets in the text itself, rather than the efficiency with which it is introduced.

- iv. some of the structural skills relating to meaning which were sought were found to be present - producing a straight answer to a 'where' question, for example, where the answer could be made by quoting a sentence. For the most part, however, the items exposed deficiencies that need to be remedied. The same is true of the experimental vocabulary items.

Therefore, if the experimental material proposed in part V (below) is to be used, it is particularly important that two things should be done: first, the new skills have to be introduced in a way that makes it clear that lexical matching cannot solve the problems set; and second, the skills have to be introduced initially with a single-sentence context, so that the task to be performed is completely clear, and there is no temptation to lexical matching.

- v. it is possible to produce a test which will give an assessment of pupils' ability, even when it is at the present low level. Such a test will have to

avoid any suggestion that the items can be answered by lexical matching (as happens in items 36 and 38) because this will subvert the purpose. On the other hand, it is possible to test word knowledge, either by giving simple translation items, or by 'odd one out' types; and some basic features of structure can be tested by items such as nos. 32 and 33. Such a test will, however, be far below the level of attainment even the most pessimistic teacher would predict.

PART V - CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR METHODOLOGICAL
CHANGE

CHAPTER XV

CONCLUSIONS

15.1 INTRODUCTORY

This thesis records a personal voyage of discovery, first of the testing specialist's possible role in the curriculum development process; and second about language teaching and learning.

Where the role of the testing specialist is essentially to devise and recommend ways of testing pupils, the conventional paradigm, of 'norm-' or 'criterion-referenced' testing is adequate. Where he is involved in curriculum development, these two are still useful - norm-referenced testing will tell about the overall level of success, criterion-referenced testing about the general level of success in specified important areas; but they are not in themselves sufficient. The study of pupils' errors, and hence by implication the strategies they adopt in the teaching/learning process, offers much more far-reaching possibilities. At the stage where assumptions are being tested, success/failure is only part of the story. We also need to know whether, first, the teachers are carrying out the aims of the teaching program accurately,

appropriately and successfully; and second, the pupils are responding in the predicted way, and learning what it is intended they should learn. This enables one to develop explanatory hypotheses, and to predict/suggest alternative, and potentially more successful, procedures and assumptions.

Such tests cannot always be constructed within the framework set up by the curriculum developers. They will have selected one or more options from a much wider range, as being the most useful or relevant for their purposes. While doing so, they may well have excluded certain other, perhaps equally tenable, assumptions; alternative possibilities which, if they could be demonstrated to have been realised, would cast doubt upon the validity of the assumptions chosen. Therefore the testing specialist has to become knowledgeable about the philosophy chosen by the curriculum developers, and the various alternative possibilities; and what kinds of evidence might help to make possible the principled selection of one or other of the theoretical alternatives.

The test of such an approach is essentially in its ability to draw insightful conclusions about the object of study, and to recommend empirically-based long- or short-term changes. The remainder of this chapter is therefore concerned with the conclusions

drawn about the success of the teachers in the classroom, and the ways in which the pupils respond to the teaching. The final chapter is an attempt to suggest ways in which the teaching should be modified; with examples of suitably adapted materials.

15.2 CONCLUSIONS IN DETAIL

15.2.1 Level of Attainment

The actual level of attainment revealed by the tests cited in this study is far lower than the 'official' standard set by the syllabus, texts, etc.

15.2.2 Character of Attainment

Study of the character (as distinct from level) of attainment shows that, in spite of the major emphasis given in the syllabus, methodology and classroom to the teaching of structure, pupils' dependence on structure in their own language use is minimal:

- a) where a sentence has to be modified to make it a suitable response to a question, such modification is unlikely to take place (cf. 'Daoud test', 'Coconut trees', Chs. 4 and 5)
- b) ability to employ the structural components of verbs to disambiguate sentences which cannot be understood on simple collocation of lexis is very poor (cf. Ch.12.3).

- c) production of lexis is markedly more successful than production of structure words; production of structure words is markedly more successful than production of structural patterns (cf. 'translation test', Ch. 6).

15.2.3 Comprehension Strategies

Study of the character of attainment also shows that pupils have not in general succeeded in developing flexible and appropriate comprehension strategies.

- a) there is an overwhelming dependence on quoting complete sentences from the text (cf. Chs. 4 and 5)
- b) the devices used for locating the right sentence are primarily lexical, with a limited amount of dependence on the order of questions reflecting the order of sentences in the text (cf. esp. Ch. 5)
- c) such matching of question and text sentence is normally independent of 'meaning'. That is to say, it is easily misled by paraphrase, or even by structural transformation, e.g. of verbs or adjectives (Ch. 5)
- d) only a minority of the group make any serious attempt to select and quote only a

part of a sentence, where only a part is relevant; another, no less significant minority fail even to quote the whole sentence, where it runs over from one line to the next (Ch. 5)

Pupils' comprehension skills are therefore 'lexical', rather than either 'semantic' or 'syntactic'.

15.2.4 Knowledge of Seen Text

Pupils' detailed knowledge of the sequence and main events in 'seen' texts (a major objective of the teaching) does not appear to generalise to the solving of other, related questions about the same texts (i.e. about motivation, reasons for actions/events) (sc. the 'open book' test in Ch. 14).

15.2.5 Teacher Awareness

Study of the teaching suggested that, although the teachers were aware of the existence of a problem, they were not aware of its extent. They may have been aware that there was a problem of 'retention'; but each individual lesson, either of structure or comprehension, tended to appear 'successful'. Possible reasons for this are:

- a) the adoption of devices (sc. pattern practice, repetition/drills which, in the interests of one aspect of teaching (habit

formation) tend to overstate the true level of pupils' attainment (sc. by providing pupils with a ready-made response which all can make, regardless of their ability to formulate genuine sentences of their own using the target structure. The inexperienced teacher (or the one who wishes to believe) may suppose that at the end of an extended period of repetition, pupils can in fact produce the target structure, rather than merely repeat it.

- b) very large classes (both of those studied are close to 50 pupils) make individual feedback difficult to obtain in class; teacher may be reluctant to get written feedback very frequently; as a result, he may easily be misled by a vocal minority (as apparently happened to teacher 3; cf. table 10f.).
- c) lack of clarity about the main purpose of the 'comprehension' lessons. Both the materials and the teachers seem to assume that a structured approach to comprehension is unnecessary - perhaps because comprehension is an 'integrative activity'. Typically, the comprehension of detailed text is seen as a matter of what might be called

'learning the text' - at the end of the lesson, pupils have to know the content thoroughly - rather than of developing a good repertory of comprehension skills, or of integrating newly-learned language into pupils' overall competence. That is to say, the means by which the pupil arrives at a knowledge of the content of the text is subordinated to the goal - knowledge of the text.

15.3 CONCLUSIONS ABOUT METHODOLOGY

There are numerous flaws apparent in the methodology, which help to explain the low level of attainment. These can be discovered by a combination of testing and observation of the teaching.

15.3.1 Situationalisation

The kind of situationalisation employed and recommended is unduly limited. Its purpose is solely to make clear to pupils what the structure 'means'. In order to do this, it is necessary to have a situation which duplicates the structure. It is implicit in this that the structure is redundant for purposes of comprehension. If this is so, the situation cannot satisfy the criterion of showing why the structure is necessary. That is to say, if the meaning can be expressed clearly enough in the situation for the

structure itself to be disambiguated for the pupils, then it cannot be a situation in which the need for the structure is also made clear. That being so, where the pupil finds the structure complex or difficult, there must always be a tendency for the pupil to assume that the context will always make the meaning clear, so that there is no need to try to learn how the structure is used. This possibility is discussed in chapter 7; and the results would be such as can be seen in the 'forming the passive' test in chapter 12.3.

If we follow Halliday (1978) cited in chapter 3.4, a second type of situationalisation would be necessary - one which reflected the kind of situation which the target structure could disambiguate. Following Hymes (1971:loc. cit.) and Widdowson (1978:loc. cit.), we should need a third kind of situation - one which addressed itself to the question of how the structure is actually used - reflecting the principles around which discourse is organised.

Furthermore, if we accept 'acquisitionist' views of the language learning process, we must say that the first type of situation to be used should be the kind where the structure is necessary in order to resolve an ambiguity. Pupils should first be confronted with a situation where there is more than one possible interpretation, and encouraged to work out the

possibilities (presumably using their mother tongue); then given one or more situations where in fact the ambiguity is resolved by context; and finally, at the 'integration' stage, given structures that more closely reflect cases where the target structure is actually used.

15.3.2 Difficulty of Generating Situations

That this kind of analysis is possible at all leads inevitably to a further conclusion about the teaching methodology - that inadequate attention has been given to the process of generating situations for the classroom. It is true that such an analysis was not possible in the early 'sixties', when the method was originally developed. At that stage, linguists had a much less clear grasp of most of these ideas. As a result, perhaps, of this, a great deal of very close attention was given to specifying what language was to be introduced - but the contexts in which it was to be seen were not given nearly so much attention. As a result, situations were developed a priori by materials writers, with no adequate criteria for suitability or sufficiency - or, worse, left to the teachers to generate, without suitable reference material.

15.3.3 Lack of Feedback

The emphasis on pattern practice and drills typical of this approach (and found in the structure lesson transcripts) has an additional (and perhaps under-rated) defect. Combined with the primacy of spoken over written language, it makes it almost impossible for the teacher to get an accurate picture of his class's attainment because the pupils have so much support to enable them to repeat the target structure in as many sentences as possible with as little delay as possible. This problem is made worse by the primacy of spoken language, and by the emphasis on avoiding error. It is very difficult indeed for the teacher to get an accurate picture of his class's real grasp of what they have been doing.

15.3.4 Loss of Meaning

The methodology lays stress on 'repetition' in 'meaningful situation' as a major basis for habit formation. To some extent, these two are incompatible. 'Meaningful' demands thought, for interpretation and planning; this increases the amount of 'wasted' time (sc., time when the pupils are silent). In the classrooms studied, there is clear evidence that the battle has been resolved more in favour of repetition than of meaning. For example, the 'substitution table' test (ch.12.2) shows that pupils, familiar with this device,

which is 'error proof', rather than merely 'error avoiding', are prepared to select nonsensical sentence. Thus, their level of engagement in the task is so low that they do not try to understand what they are transcribing. While we cannot positively say that no important learning is taking place, it is a reasonable supposition.

15.3.5 Lack of Attention to 'Activation'

A major stated purpose of the detailed texts included in all the reader lessons is to 'activate' (in Keith Johnson's phrase) new language; integrate it into pupils' overall competence. None of the lessons observed show any conscious attention to this process. The reader lessons have exercises on the new language, and questions about the text; but the gap between the two is not bridged; pupils' attention is not drawn to the new language when it is encountered in the text. However, the vocabulary test in chapter 14 indicates that the text is a powerful reinforcer for new learning. More attention should be paid to this.

15.3.6 Poor Comprehension Teaching

There appears to be an unstated assumption that comprehension skills cannot be separated or taught separately. The procedure used could be called comprehension practice, (i.e., a text is read, questions are asked,

and, it is hoped, answered by the pupils). Teachers' preparation appears to be restricted to a series of questions about the content of the text. They do not prepare fall-back questions for when the pupils fail to get the right answer, of a kind that will provoke appropriate strategies. Rather, they use leading, or attention-directing techniques. Pupils in practice do not induce appropriate techniques for arriving at the answers or generalise to other questions of the same type in the future. If pupils are to develop flexible comprehension strategies, a better range of instructional techniques must be developed.

15.3.7 Restricted Range of Comprehension Teaching

Finally, teachers' questions cover a restricted range of skills. They are concerned mainly or exclusively with the actual events recorded in the texts - who thought, said or did what, when or where, to or with whom. It is not clear whether teachers feel that standards are not high enough for them to pass on to more subtle questions, or whether they feel that comprehension is a matter of what is directly and objectively verifiable from the text; but it is clear from the 'open book' test (ch. 14) that ability to answer this kind of question, and indeed detailed knowledge of the content of the text being discussed, does not necessarily generalise to other kinds of

question about the same text. (Paraphrases, questions about reasons for actions, etc.).

15.4 FUNDAMENTAL ASSUMPTIONS

15.4.1 Unrealism

The fundamental assumption about amount of learning that will take place as a result of situational introduction, and practice by means of drill and repetition, seems to be over-optimistic. As indicated by the 'substitution table' test, pupils' attention to this kind of task is very low - they are almost wholly disengaged. That not much rule-building takes place under these circumstances seems established - the rules are not used in any of the tests administered. However, it is clear from the study of the teaching that the pupils do work hard enough to satisfy the teachers - they repeat the correct answers on request, engage in chorus drills, etc. We may conclude that they learn as much as they need to learn in order to communicate successfully - and that this learning does not necessarily include the target structure. Thus, exposure to the target structure, even repeated exposure, does not lead to the kind of learning postulated (at least, not within the bounds of a reasonable amount of classroom time, and with normally motivated - or unmotivated - pupils). If exposure, under conditions where the demands of effective

communication can be satisfied without having to understand the target structure, or having to formulate the target structure to express some meaning, does not lead to successful learning, something more is needed - to change the classroom situation so that its demands cannot be satisfied without understanding the target language items, or producing them in order to express some meaning.

CHAPTER XVISUGGESTIONS FOR CHANGES

It is true that the testing specialist cannot be expected to do the whole job of curriculum development - if he were able to prepare a full set of revised materials, there would be no need for materials writers or methodology specialists. At the same time, however, if his conclusions about the curriculum are to be useful, they have to be put in a sufficiently concrete form for others not immediately involved to be able to see what changes would be implied, if his views were accepted. Therefore, his conclusions must include some kind of statement of what kinds of changes in procedure would result from acceptance, and examples of the new teaching techniques.

It can further be assumed that a root-and-branch change of assumptions and procedures would not be acceptable to the curriculum developers. Therefore, the recommendations must be built within the existing framework. In this case, the framework consists of:

- a) situational introduction of new language items
- b) practice of new language items by some kind of repetitive drill
- c) integration/activation by a comprehension text/set of exercises

The aim will be to make proposals that do not disturb this basic framework.

Even so, fairly basic changes are demanded. These changes fall into four basic areas:

- a) increasing the effectiveness of the situational technique for introducing new language
- b) securing much more stress on meaning, and much more active engagement of the pupils' minds, during the practice stage
- c) developing exercises which help to build a bridge from the introduction/practice, to the use of the language items in text-based work
- d) developing a simple, reasonably effective, but not time-consuming, feedback system.

The relevance of each of these has to be considered for each of the three main areas studied - structure, vocabulary, and comprehension.

16.2 STRUCTURE

16.2.1 Introducing New Structure

The introduction of new structure is one of the most important aspects of the methodology, owing to the complexity of 'structure', as defined; a heterogeneous collection of structure words, verb forms, and

sentence patterns; and to the variety of levels of difficulty of the learning tasks - structure words can be treated in a very straightforward manner; the problems of introducing complex patterns such as reported speech and conditionals are infinitely greater. The main problem, however, appears to be with the oversimplified situational treatment. The kind of situation where the context makes explicit the meaning of the target structure is by definition untypical; the pedagogic disadvantage of it is that it does not give the pupil any incentive to learn the verb form or sentence pattern in question (if it is redundant, because the context makes the meaning clear, pupils will not make any special effort to learn it).

Therefore, the starting point has to be a situation which can only be disambiguated by understanding the target structure. There are two basic possibilities for doing this:

- a) give an ambiguous sentence; ask pupils a question which turns on an understanding of the target structure; then increase support from the context in such a way that pupils can make a guess as to the meaning.
- b) give an ambiguous situation; ask pupils a question that turns on an understanding of the target structure; then give them as a

clue an analogous sentence or situation, where the context makes clear the meaning of the target structure; invite the pupils to solve the original problem by analogy.

For example, in teaching the passive:

John was hit by Peter

gives no clue as to what was hit, and who did the hitting, outside the verb, whereas:

John was hit by a falling brick

gives a semantic clue. If therefore, one were to set a sentence such as the first, as a problem - various forms of question are possible, since there are really only two possible choices; true/false items such as

John was hurt

being the most obvious - then it would be possible for the pupils to feel the need for the passive; and the teacher to see from the beginning how many, or few, pupils understand how it is used. If the pupils clearly understand from the earliest stages what the structure means, then no extended presentation is required - it will serve only to lose the pupils' attention. If there is clear uncertainty or a division of opinion, then the teacher would have a choice of courses open. Either he could give some such sentence as (2), with the same question - on the assumption that most of the pupils could solve that, and the first one by analogy - or he

could give an extra piece of information, such as

That's why John has a black eye

and ask the same question.

The basic difference between this and the present procedure is that pupils are given a need to know, the meaning of the new structural element. The degree of complexity or elaboration, the number of problems needed for successful introduction, will vary very much, depending on the structure:

- a) Structure words will need only a limited amount of introduction before the transition is made to practice. The task is straightforward; in the tests, pupils' knowledge of structure words was better than their knowledge of verb forms and structural patterns.
- b) Verb forms are more difficult, as shown by poorer performance, but critical for successful learning. Relatively more attention needs to be given to them; the process described above may need to be gone through several times before a sufficient number of the pupils have a sure grasp of the item.
- c) Sentence patterns present a much more difficult problem. They are a heterogeneous collection; some, forms such as the

comparative, conditional and reported speech, lend themselves relatively readily to this approach; others, the more strictly 'sentence pattern' constructions, such as 27 and 28 on page Ap.24, or 9 and 14 on Ap.29, do not really lend themselves to this kind of teaching, being in the nature of arbitrarily chosen arrangements of words, rather than vital distinctions. It is suggested that such patterns be allowed to develop as and when they are needed, and so long as they cause no confusion, that no attention should be paid to them, beyond telling pupils the correct word order for a sentence, when they use an incorrect one.

16.2.2 Practising New Structure

The weakness noted with the practice of structure items was that in order to achieve a high frequency of repetition, meaning, or purposeful use of the target item, was sacrificed. As a result, pupils' attention was not engaged, and they did not appear to learn. It is quite impossible to achieve the highest frequency of repetition with examples which are meaningful to the pupils; but if the pupils' active engagement is to be secured, some kind of small, meaningful task is

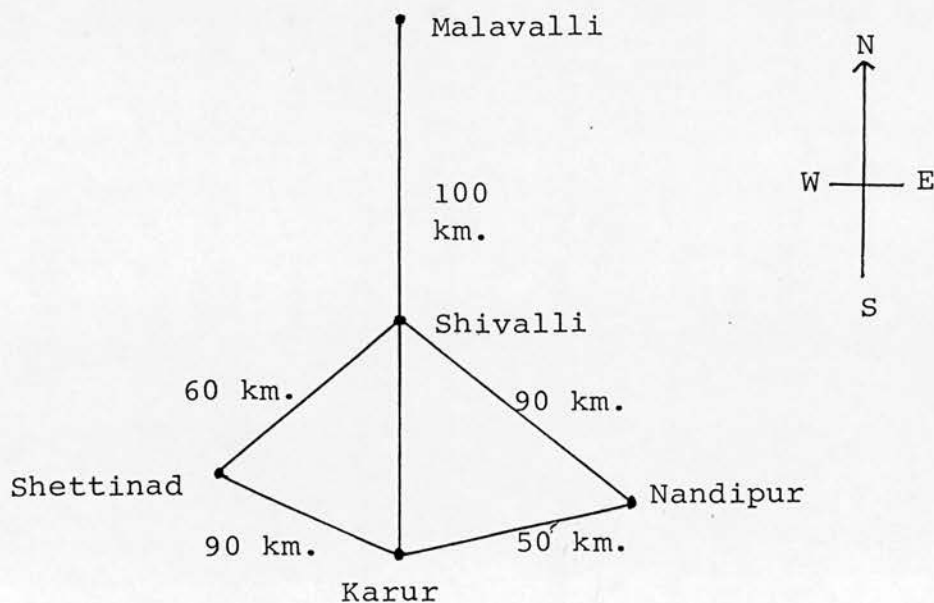
essential. Following the L-R-S-W pattern, and stressing the need for a transition from receptive to productive above all, we should get the following pattern:

- a) first set of exercises would be receptive, oral. They would consist either of questions where the stem involved the target structure, and a successful answer would imply understanding of the target structure in a sentence, or of a question using the target structure.
- b) the reading stage would consist of similar problems to those under (a), but with written, rather than oral, stimulus; and answers in the form of checked alternatives or oral response.
- c) the third stage would involve the students producing the target structure, in response to questions where the correct answer (in content, not purely linguistically) demanded the target structure. Stimulus would be spoken, as would response.
- d) the final stage would repeat stage (c), but in writing.

In the following examples, the distinction between oral and written work has been ignored; the spoken and written items would be much the same; and

only the distinction between receptive and productive has been noted.

The first example relates to the easiest category, structure words, and some sentence patterns. It involves the use of a map:



This map can be used in several ways; for example:

- i. practice of "how far ... "

Receptive: one can ask such questions as:

How far is it from Shivalli to Nandipur?
 km

This can be repeated as often as necessary with different pairs of towns, or different maps. Another, more complex form, would be:

How far is it from Shettinad to Nandipur
 by way of Karur? km

This again can easily be repeated.

Productive: the question can be produced in response to an answer; as:

.....? 100 km

which can be repeated. Again, it has its more complex form:

.....? 140 km

Therefore, such a map as this can be used, either on the blackboard for oral practice, or as an individual written exercise, to give practice in both understanding and producing a closely-controlled piece of language, without loss of individual engagement.

ii. other structure words:

The same map, or similar ones, can be used for a variety of other structures.

What town is between Malavalli and
Karur?

What town is to the north (or south)
of Karur?

I leave Shivalli and travel north. What
town do I come to?

This in its turn can lead to the practice or introduction of more complex patterns, such as the conditional, in situations where the meaning is reasonably clear;

If I leave Shivalli and go north, which

town will I come to?

In addition, use for 'left' and 'right':

Which town is to the left of Karur?

.....

It can cover the further complexity of the difference between 'to the left of' and 'on my left', where the pupil has to make an imaginative reconstruction of what would be on the left of an imaginary person on a given road:

I leave Karur and travel north-west.

What town is on my right?

In all of these there is a need for understanding - assessed by the truth or otherwise of the answer. The format can allow for several repetitions of the target structure, without loss of challenge. Here is another problem for structural practice:

Padma is to the left of Shanti. Uma is to the left of Padma

Receptive:

- a) who is on the left?
- b) who is the rightmost girl?
- c) who is in the middle?

Productive:

- d) Padma is Uma and Shanti
- e) Shanti is Padma

iii. comparisons:

The same map cited above, at a later stage in the course could be used to practise comparisons:

Which is shorter, Karur to Nandipur or
Shivalli to Shettinad?

.....

Which is the shortest way from Shettinad
to Nandipur?

.....

How far is it from Shettinad to Nandipur
by the shortest way? km

How much farther is it from Shettinad to
Nandipur by way of Shivalli than by way
of Karur?

It is possible to produce productive questions on the analogy of those under (i) above; but there is a problem in ensuring that the target structure is used. Some will have a variety of answers but this is not important if all require a comparative; e.g.:

.....? 150 km.

In such a case, it may be desirable in fact to go through as many questions as pupils can find which require that answer (i.e., rather than say that the pupils' response is wrong, when the content is not wrong, but it does not use the target structure).

The second example relates to practising verb forms. In this case, there is no single piece of stimulus material, but rather a set of discrete items. The first of these is receptive:

The meeting had started when the chief guest arrived.

Therefore, the chief guest was (a) early (b) on time (c) late .

In this case, the main clue to what is meant is the 'had'. The sentence could have been "the meeting started when the chief guest arrived", in which case the answer would be (b). As it is, the meeting presumably started on time; so the chief guest is late.

Another possible kind of item would still be receptive, in the sense that the pupil would not actually have to produce the target structure for himself; but is more demanding, in that the pupil, rather than simply knowing what the target structure means, has to go one step further and select the most suitable form:

The train leaves at 1:50. John reached the station at 2:00.

Therefore, the train (had not yet arrived/was at the station/was about to leave/had already left).

Both of these types of item have the incidental advantage of not presenting the pupils with wrong English, but instead asking them to choose from amongst alternative pieces of correct English.

Truly 'productive' exercises could be similar in type to the second of the examples above; but with a little more context:

The film started at 6:30. Ravi arrived at 6:45.

Therefore, Ravi was late, and the film

16.2.3 "Activation"

Once the new item has been learnt and practised, it is necessary for the pupil to learn how to use it. There are three aspects to this:

- i. exercises in which a mixture of structures are used and called for; helping students to learn how to make use of the skills they already have, when their attention is not specifically drawn to the target structure, which is imbedded in a variety of other languages.
- ii. exercises demanding a range of inferences from a specific structure - that call for awareness of secondary, accidental or unpredicted properties of the target structure.
- iii. exercises where each of the alternatives offered is correct; but only one is appropriate.

As an example of how some at least of these might be achieved in practice, a set of exercises has been built around a simple chart:

<u>Runner</u>	<u>Race No.</u>				
	1	2	3	4	5
Ravi	57	55	56	52	57
Mohan	55	54	59	55	53

This could be used in a variety of ways. First, it could be used as source material for a set of receptive exercises based on a variety of structures:

Mohan won more races than Ravi T/F

Ravi ran the fastest time of all T/F

In the first race, Ravi ran faster than

Mohan T/F

These all turn on comparatives, and allow for simple discussion in class.

In the last race, Ravi ran nearly as fast as

(Mohan / in the fourth race / his best time / he could)

When Mohan reached the winning post in the fourth race Ravi (was about to finish / was still running / had already finished / had not yet finished)

Mohan ran faster than Ravi in (only one / a few / most / all) of the races.

These examples require more thinking and more than one structure. The first turns on 'nearly as', and demands consideration of disparate alternatives; the second requires consideration of a variety of alternative verb formulations, the test being the accuracy with which they describe the situation; and the third is apparently a comparative; but in fact requires a more complex task, because the answer has to be found in 'a few ... most ... all'.

Next a text could be constructed reflecting the content of the chart, and treated as a gap-filling or close-type exercise:

Ravi and Mohan were arguing about who was the fastest runner. They agreed to have a race, over 400 metres. Mohan won it in 55 seconds. 2 seconds ahead of Ravi. Ravi said, "that's not fair. We can't know who is really faster after just one race. We must make it best of five ...".

The continuation, and the gaps to be filled, can then be selected at will.

Alternatively, sentences can be constructed, and gaps left at will:

If Ravi had run four seconds faster in the second race, he would have beaten Mohan by one second.

Possible candidates for deletion have been underlined.

Alternatively, a sentence completion exercise:

Ravi reached the winning post in the
fourth race four seconds

When Ravi reached the winning post in the
first race Mohan

When Ravi reached the winning post in the
third race Mohan

Here, there is considerable control over what pupils write; in the second and third examples, what has to be expressed is quite different although the sentence to that point is identical except for the race number.

The text could be used as a resource for question writing, as in the "how far" example cited above:

.....
Ravi in fifty-two seconds

.....
The second race; there was only one
second between them.

.....
One second. Mohan took 54 seconds, Ravi
one second more.
.....

Fifty-nine seconds, done by Mohan in the third race.

Finally, the initial sentences quoted as the basis for a cloze-type exercise above could also be the basis of a writing task, using the chart as main stimulus, and continuing the narrative.

Exercises of the kind tried out in Chapter 14:

Seeta has two tomatoes and a mango in her basket.

Her mother takes the tomatoes to make dinner. Seeta eats the mango.

- a) How many tomatoes did Seeta's mother take?
- b) How many mangoes did seeta eat?
- c) What is left in the basket now?

Take early steps towards the discourse-level use of structure. The first question relies on anaphoric reference; the tomatoes are referred to as 'the tomatoes', meaning that we must have heard of them before; and pupils have to be able to locate the earlier reference. Since, however, there is only one earlier sentence, the job is almost as easy as it can be. It introduces the concepts of anaphoric reference and old and new information in a context where confusion is likely to be minimal. The second question can be answered in two ways; the noun is singular, and the

indefinite article is used only with singular nouns. It should be simpler than the first, but is not because nowhere is it explicitly stated how many mangoes there are, so pupils are having to make use of information which is incidental to the main 'meaning' of the structure. The third question is productive, and demands the answer 'nothing', or 'the basket is empty' Exercises of this type give ample scope for class discussion of the correct answer, in a context where there is challenge. They can involve implication:

These bananas seem to be ripe.

Have I tasted the bananas? Why do you
say this?

In this case, the verb gives an indirect clue; if one had actually tasted one of the bananas, one would choose a more positive verb.

Appropriacy demands a special kind of exercise - one where the propositional content of the alternatives offered is the same; but the form of words chosen either may or may not be appropriate. Newmark's main objection to structural/situational teaching (1966: quoted above) was that although students can form correct sentences, they very often cannot choose the appropriate formulation for a particular situation. This suggests an exercise - three or four ways of saying the same thing; pupils choose the one best

suited to the situation. This could operate at several levels:

- i. placing emphasis on one or other of the participants, or on old vs new information.
Who was it that did that to John?
 - a) John was hit by Paul
 - b) Paul hit John
 - c) It was Paul that hit him

- ii. selecting the one of various possible formulations that is actually used in idiomatic speech:
You want a cigarette. You have no matches.
You should say
 - a) Have you got a light?
 - b) Have you got a flame?
 - c) Please can you light my cigarette for me?
 - d) Give me a flame, please.

these being two of the most important,

16.2.4 Monitoring and feedback

The essential problems about an effective monitoring system are twofold; first, class size; and second, the aural/oral system of teaching, using drills which overstate the pupils' attainment.

There really is no way around the problem of class size, except to have some kind of paper-and-pencil test. Where there are fifty pupils in a class, to ask each even a small set of individual questions would require the teacher to have an enormous set of questions, and to spend an enormous amount of time on checking understanding. This time can however be enormously reduced by simply having a short, individually-answered paper-and-pencil test. The problem of the drills can be solved by not using drill-related items to test understanding. Much of the material cited as examples above lends itself logically to this kind of test.

Processing of the test is bound to be time-consuming, if the teacher is forced to mark them on his own time. This will tend to discourage teachers from using tests. However, the amount of information he needs is very limited - merely what proportion of the class can handle the target structure, at the right level of attainment. This can be obtained from a very short test (since individual scores are not important), and the test can be marked in a few minutes, by pupils exchanging scripts, and the marks tallied on the board. The teacher can then make a judgement, in the class, whether to proceed or to cover the ground again. In a short time, the pupils should come to co-operate willingly, seeing that no

individual is threatened, and the results are used to make important decisions about how to use class time. It will, however, be important to stress in the teachers' handbooks the points at which it is important to use the tests (many of which can be prepared in advance), and what action one should take, on the strength of what kind of score patterns. For example, if most of the pupils get low scores, the course of action is clear - cover the material again. In less clear-cut cases, you may proceed, but wish to help and support those who have not grasped what has just been taught.

16.3 VOCABULARY

There is no reason to suppose that meeting a word in a small number of contexts that make its meaning clear is a particularly natural process. Early acquisition of word meaning is marked by periods of over- and under-extension of meaning; the whole process is far less expeditious than that postulated in situational presentation. On the other hand, when adults don't know the meaning of a word, they either ask for a definition, or refer to a dictionary.

Thus, the situational method is not supported by evidence from natural language acquisition.

The empirical evidence is that the method, relying on the generation of situations by individual teachers, is not effective. There is also little evidence that the prior introduction of the words helps the pupils significantly. Teacher 3, who devoted most care to her situationalisation, found this problem with 'gunny bag' (lines 337-344, page Ap. 101) When the lexical item appears in a text, pupils still need to ask the meaning. Items which are recalled are those that get attention in the text.

16.3.1 Introduction of New Vocabulary

If the situational introduction of new vocabulary is not cost-effective, a worthwhile first step towards a new way of dealing with vocabulary might simply be to abandon any attempt to prepare pupils to meet new items, and allow them to occur in the set texts. Where the teacher has any doubts about pupils knowing the new lexical items, he can simply ask if they know what they mean - and if not, use a combination of simply telling them in their mother tongue, giving dictionary definitions, and asking pupils to look the words up in the class dictionary. This will inevitably slow down the reading of the text; but not consume as much time as repeated situational treatment.

16.3.2 Practice of New Vocabulary

Where a word's meaning is easily made clear, practice needed may be minimal. Where the teacher has doubts, he should take the opportunity to frame some comprehension questions involving the target items.

These could take several basic forms:

- a) mother-tongue equivalents. Pupils could give mother-tongue equivalents in response to simple questions such as "What does 'dead' mean in Line 11?"
- b) selection of the correct meaning from several alternatives. Items of this sort could come in several forms; for example, giving several alternatives all of which could be correct in one or other context; or giving several alternatives, all of which are close, but only one of which is correct.
- c) simple factual questions which turn on the target lexical item:
 "Why did they have a dispute? What about?"
 "Who was the bride? Who was the thief?"

16.3.3 Activation/Consolidation of Vocabulary

The simplest, most basic type of activation that might be considered is paraphrase, the use of lexical items to summarise or replace other formulations having

the same underlying meaning. At the lowest level, an appropriate exercise might be of the type:

John has a house and a car, and works as
as a professor

Does John own an automobile? Y/N

where the paraphrase takes the form of merely replacing the major lexical items with others having the same meaning. This has been shown to be a source of difficulty for these pupils, although it is at a very low level. Once tasks of this kind have been mastered, it will be possible to use exercises of a more complex character:

Some boys were talking:

Siddha said: "I must drink some water.

It is very hot here".

Babu said: "I don't want to do anything
at all. Siddha, bring me some water".

Ali said: "I have had no food since
morning. Let me take some iddlies".

Sankar said: "I have too much to do. I
have my housework, and mother asked me to
buy some vegetables".

John said nothing; he had not yet woken
up.

Prakash was not there; he was on his way.

1. Ali was (sorry/thirsty/dirty/hungry).

2. Babu was (lazy/busy/tired/rough)

3. Who was late?
4. Who was asleep?

These examples are a variant of simple paraphrase, where a word has to be found or chosen to summarise, or encapsulate a state of frame of mind. Items 1 and 2 attack the problem found in chapter 14; that this type of task encourages lexical matching.

The converse of this first type of exercise might be to produce a set of exercises which ask the pupil why a particular word was chosen; what it expresses, or what state of affairs it apparently describes. For example:

One day, the winds guided our ships to
an uninhabited island. My companions
and I went ashore, surprised by one
abundance of fruit and water on the
land.

(Text drawn from "Sinbad the Sailor",
Karnataka Std VIII)

We might, for example, choose to ask:

Which word in the text that tells you there
were no people on the island?

Thereby avoiding asking outright "What does

"unhabited" mean?" Alternatively, we might ask:

When the narrator got back to the ship,
what do you think he said?

- a) There were far more fruit trees there than I expected.
- b) Of course, there were plenty of fruit trees there
- c) I didn't expect to see so little fruit on that island
- d) Needless to say, there wasn't much fruit on the island.

Here the pupil has to make sense of two words - 'surprised', and 'abundance'.

This example can be extended into the realm of implication not just what is explicitly stated, but what is implied in it:

Four boys were playing football.

Siddha kicked the ball.

Arjun watched the ball.

Khaus caught the ball.

John asked for the ball.

Who has the ball now?

This example requires a relatively simple extension - that somebody who has caught the ball will still be holding it (but the principle could be extended).

Alternatively, one could look at vocabulary in terms of semantic features. One could attempt to

broaden pupils' vocabularies by looking at groups of words. One type of grouping which can be used is that known as 'taxonomic' - groups of words under a superordinate classifier. Thus, one could have 'odd one out' exercises; or exercises which involve either selecting the one word which subsumes all the others; or allocating words to predefined groups. A second type of grouping, is of words which have a 'paradigmatic' relationship one to another (and which can be subjected to componential analysis as a result) lend themselves readily to the construction of analogies. These analogies do not have to be simple; all sorts of complications are possible - for example:

'Baker' is to 'bake' as 'author' is
to

where the agent-action relationship is complicated by the fact that in the second case, the action uses a different word.

A final type of exercise, also concerned with groups of words, but this time words from a particular semantic field, which is indicated by the data in this study, concerns the construction of global representations. For example, the problem pupils encountered with item 7 in vocabulary test A (i.e., 'bride') was, for the most part, not with the general semantic field - most responses were connected with marriage in some way - so much as with the other components of the word

e.g., human, female, specific role played. One way to give pupils help with this kind of difficulty would be to set up exercises where they had to make guesses about precisely what was being described, and, hence, who or what the participants may be:

People arrived wearing their best clothes, and were shown to their seats, in the big building. Somewhere up at the end away from the door, somebody was playing music. Then, when almost everybody was seated, two young men came, and went up to the railings that divided the seating area from an empty space. Then another older man came out of a door in the empty space. A young woman, dressed all in white, and accompanied by an older man, arrived ...

In the early stages, it might be a description of a theatrical performance; in the end, however, it is clearly a marriage ceremony. Having established that, one can go on to ask such questions as:

What is the building called?

Who is the woman dressed all in white?

Who is the older man who arrived by himself?

Who are the two younger men?

In this way, one can take a problem-centred approach to the practice of related groups of words.

16.4 COMPREHENSION

The effective use of vocabulary and structure is a significant part of the comprehension skill. This section is therefore primarily concerned with the discourse level skills of comprehension. A range of such skills has been selected to be both teachable and sufficient for present purposes:

- a) relationship between text and question
- b) implication and implicature
- c) use of referents
- d) reality principle
- e) construction of global representations

The emphasis throughout is on the use of these groups of skills in the selection of alternative constructions and conclusions, and in prediction of what comes next in the text, what will happen next, how a character will behave, or what the author wishes to achieve.

The basic teaching procedure advocated follows that in the previous two sections:

- i. introduction of new skills should take place in a minimal context, so that the nature of the task is clear to all.
This suggests simple problems of the question and answer type, based on a single sentence stem as far as possible.

- ii. practice involves more extensive text, and a second dimension; locating the relevant piece of text guidance at this stage should relate to appropriate procedure, not to the location of the answer.
- iii. at the activation stage, a range of activities will be practised and applied. If the preceding two stages have been successful, the teacher's main task will be to remind the pupils of previous occasions when the skills were practised.

Examples of the first and second levels are given in the text.

Examples of the final stage, comprehension lessons involving a variety of skills, are in Appendices 19 and 20.

16.4.1 Relationship Between Text and Question

At present, the pupils' idea of the relationship between text and question is very limited. They have been told to read the text with care, and in advance of being given any purpose for reading (this can be seen in transcripts 3 to 5). Then, the most important part of the task they are given is to locate the sentence which contains the answer - when they have done that, the teacher is satisfied.

This has the effect of encouraging them to quote sentences, rather than answer questions; and leads them to expect a one-on-one relationship between text and questions - they do not expect questions to relate to groups of sentences, or to an odd word or two; or to deviate from the order of the sentences in the text.

This suggests a change of approach:

- i. pupils must develop a flexible response to questions-type. By definition, this must develop with extended text. For example, questions looking for a single piece of factual information:

Who won the race?

What was the name of the boys' father?

Such questions can be given in advance of the text, and pupils asked to find lexical keys - in the first example, one might be looking for 'winner', 'victor', 'finish', and the like - and to guess approximately where in the text to look - in the first example, the race is not likely to be won until near the end. Pupils can be taught that a great deal of the response can be predicted in advance - with 'wh-' questions words, for example, an appropriate exercise could be to select an appropriate answer to a wh-question in the absence of a text.

A third type might be questions that require more than one sentence for their answer, or demand something outside the text - for example, making a judgement about a person's conduct. Appropriate questions might be:

What kind of a man was Whang?

Do you think Gundappa was a good man or not?

Appropriate procedure might be:

- i. select several sentences using lexical keys, all relating to the conduct of the character in question.
- ii. on the blackboard, summarise the sentences, and draw conclusions about their relevance.
- iii. ask for opinions from the class.

In addition, pupils need to think of relationships of meaning, rather than structure or lexis. This requires practice in solving questions which take the form described by Anderson (1972) as "transformed paraphrase". For example:

George owns a car

The question would be

Does George have an automobile?

rather than

Does George own a car?

This awareness should develop quickly. The use of this type of question should be continued.

Finally, pupils need training in procedures for answering a "wh-" question. A two-step process is required; "wh-" questions, such as:

Who stole the money?

both gives and demands information. The first piece of information it gives is that we can look for something which equates with the proposition "X stole the money"; the second is that the questioner requires an answer to "X?", rather than some other, such as "How?" or "What?". Exercises might take the form:

Ramesh broke the window, climbed in and
took Rs 1 lakh

Who broke the window?

What did Ramesh do with the money?

How much did he get away with?

Pupils to supply the appropriate answers.

16.4.2 Implication and Implicature

Pupils need to know first, how if necessary to derive what is implicit from what is stated; and second, how this is customarily used in English, to say things in indirect ways. If some training in this is not given - if, for example, the texts pupils

meet are all simplified and straightforward - then pupils will not be well equipped to cope with genuine English when they meet it. At the introductory level, an appropriate type of exercise would be:

The policeman was shot when he went to
investigate

What weapon did the burglar have?

or: Was the burglar armed?

or: Should an ordinary man try to stop the
burglar? Why?

The idiomatic use of conversational implicatures could be taught using exercises of the form:

How was your date?

Well, he certainly turned up on time (i.e.,
and that was the last good thing about it)

with questions about why the respondent chose to remark on this apparently minor thing; could she have meant it to be taken explicitly? if not, what was she trying to say? (i.e., that nothing else was good). Other examples might turn on structural points, for example:

I went to the hospital. The policeman
was alive (i.e., his wound was so grave
that I did not expect him to be)

I went to the hospital. The policeman was
still alive (i.e., but he died later).

At a more integrative level, this kind of skill could be practised by re-writing one kind of text, containing certain information, and implying certain other information, into another kind of text, based on the same information, but with a different purpose and intended audience. This would make it possible to select what to say explicitly, what to imply, on the grounds of who was the intended audience. For example, pupils might be given a report about a robbery, and asked to re-write it to make a suitable radio newsflash/warning.

A policeman was shot early today as he investigated a suspected break-in at BBM on Hunsoor Road. He was taken to hospital, where he is said to be 'comfortable'. He described his attacker as being about 30, medium height, dark complexion, wearing a white shirt and grey trousers. The manager of the factory said that the safe had been broken, and about Rs 12 000 taken, all in notes of Rs 100.

In order to make this into a warning to the general public, the facts have to be selected and re-ordered, and certain implications made explicit:

- i. a man of description x is wanted by the police.

- ii. he will have a lot of Rs 100 notes to spend. This will make him conspicuous
- iii. if he is spotted, he should not be approached, as he is both armed and willing to use his gun. He should instead be reported to the police.

Other facts which are important to the original text could be played down, or left out:

- i. the policeman's condition
- ii. details of the robbery, method, etc.

The re-written announcement would be based on the first, rather than the second, set of facts.

16.4.3 Referents

The efficient comprehender stores all the facts relating to a single entity together in memory; natural language uses this both to refer to the feature of that entity most relevant at a given time, and as a major cohesive device. A pupil who does not grasp the pattern of referents typical of a language, or in a specific case, will be unable to understand the text. The most common device of this kind is the definitive noun phrase. Another important area is the use of pronouns. Pupils have to learn to use these and others. A suitable kind of exercise to start with might be:

Bose lives in apartment 3A. Rao lives in apartment 3B. Shetty lives in apartment 2A. George lives in apartment 2B.

The doctor lives in apartment 2B. What is his name?

The teacher John met lives in apartment 3A.

What is the name of the teacher?

What is the name of the man John met?

The man who lives in apartment 3B is a brahmin.

What is the brahmin's name?

Examples of more integrative tests of referents will be found below, in section 16.5 and Appendix 19 and 20.

16.4.4 Reality Principle

Another disadvantage of reliance on questions whose answers can be verified directly from the text, is that it fails to exploit pupils' knowledge of the world, and of text-types.

Grice's maxim of quantity is violated if the speaker attempts to give more information than is necessary for the intended audience to make sense of what he says; in 'comprehension' exercises, an attempt is made to be complete within the bounds of

the text; but it cannot possibly be. Therefore, the main effect is not to achieve completeness, but to neglect training in use of one's own knowledge.

There are four main areas in which we might give such pupils training:

- i. knowledge of properties and characteristics of objects not directly referred to. A suitable exercise in this area might be:
Solve this problem:

Mr Raman and his family decided to go to Ooty in their car. Suddenly, between Mysore and Nanjangud, they stopped. There were no buildings or people to be seen.
Why did they stop?

Knowledge of the area tells us that they have not reached their destination. It is implicit that they did not stop for petrol or other supplies; but they may have stopped for a picnic or a rest. Alternatively, we know they might have stopped because there was something in the way, or a policeman stopped them, or because there was something wrong with the car. The first two can be ruled out because it was an isolated spot. Therefore, we are left with two basic sets of alternatives. We can divide the second further; what kind of failure of the car would be sufficient to cause them to stop? a puncture, or overheating; but

not a light bulb, or the radio. Thus, a suitable set of alternatives might be:

- a) they had reached Ooty
- b) they needed to buy gasoline
- c) the radio in the car had broken
- d) there was a puncture.

ii. knowledge about stereotypes and professions.

We expect certain professions to behave in certain ways, even when not officially on duty. This could be tackled with an exercise such as:

Ramesh was a doctor, Bose a policeman, and Hallappa a farmer. One day, when they were walking together, they saw an autorickshaw knock down a woman who was crossing the road, and hurry on without stopping.

- a) One of them got into his car, and went after the auto driver. Which one?
- b) One of them rushed to help the woman. Which one?

Similar items could be made about stereotypical people - an old woman, a young man, a middle-aged businessman, and so on.

iii. knowledge of famous people. When we refer to famous people, we do not need to give the facts about them that we intend to draw on; some at least of them will be known to our audience and they will be integrated with the new information contained in the text. For example, when dealing with Indian schoolchildren, a great many facts about Gandhi will be known, including (for example) that his first case was something of a flop, because he found himself tongue-tied. Thus, a lawyer who failed in his first case will be interpreted as a failure if it is just any lawyer; but not if it is revealed that the lawyer's name was Gandhi. This is analogous to the effect cited by Sulin and Dooling (1974: in Clark and Clark, p. 159) of substituting "Helen Keller" for "Carol Harris", in a text where "blind, deaf and dumb" is not mentioned. In the former case, readers tended to view the child's disruptive behaviour in a quite different light, and indeed in a number of cases to believe that the handicap actually had been mentioned.

iv. Finally, it would be appropriate to develop a set of exercises based on text-type. In this case, the range of text types to which the pupils are exposed is very limited, because although English is learnt essentially as a library language, no vernacular-medium school system can afford any suggestion that any subject is being taught in English. The English teacher is therefore in effect restricted to narrative; the lives of great men, mythology, and stories. This removes from consideration the range of exercises found, for example, in ESP courses.

It does not however, mean that one should give no consideration at all to the conventions of story-telling. According to Rumelhart (cited in Clark and Clark, p. 168), a story has only two basic elements, "setting", and "episode". A setting consists of an indefinite number of "states"; an "episode" consists of "event" and "reaction". To some extent, these are analogous with "beginning, middle and end" - the setting being the beginning, the event the middle, and the reaction the end. While this terminology does not have to be used for teaching, it does appear to suggest a workable set of exercises, designed to produce inductive learning, and capable of being used

with shortened texts, and excerpts. These might include:

- a) guess whether an excerpt comes from a story or some other kind of text
- b) guess whereabouts in a story an excerpt comes from
- c) select from several alternatives the most likely continuation for an excerpt
- d) given an incomplete text, or one with gaps, write a completion, or close the gaps.

All of these suggested exercises, however, are best carried out on a larger scale than the short examples used here, and examples will be found attached to the specimen texts in 16.5 and appendices 19 and 20.

16.4.5 Constructing Global Representations

At several points we have been concerned with the construction of larger entities - the integration of all information about a single entity into a single representation, the integration of old and new information, the application of prior knowledge to problems in a text, being three examples. There is another ability, related to all these, and which was briefly touched on in the first part of this section - the ability to take material from different parts of a single text, and integrate it into a new representation, unrelated to

any single sentence, which is the sum of the parts. One example of how strikingly this can change the picture built up in the individual sentences was given as a vocabulary exercise above; where a wedding was described in a fragmentary way; and in time, the picture which emerged completely changed one's previous interpretation.

A number of exercises can give pupils training in this skill. All, however, by definition require more than the short items previously used as examples. Therefore, it is difficult to give example which will carry conviction, within a reasonable compass, and instead, suggestions will be given:

- a) what am I describing? the 'wedding'
text already referred to is an advanced example. With young children, one could begin at the level of:
It has two legs
It has no feathers
It can swim
It jumps about on land
It makes a croaking sound
The young swim in the water like fishes until they grow up.
- b) evaluating a person's behaviour by drawing up a balance of good and bad

(as suggested in 16.4,1); deciding whether a particular action was beneficial or not on the whole.

- c) locating an inconsistent sentence in a text (i.e. one which has been inserted)
- d) developing as many titles as possible for a paragraph (with a premium on completely different global representations, at the level of 'a visit to an anthill' vs. 'modern New York').

16.5 FULL-SCALE COMPREHENSION EXERCISES

The set of tasks described under 'activation' of structure and vocabulary, and in 16.4 above, are proposed as the basis for a course leading to a goal very similar to that officially aimed at in the Karnataka syllabus, but never achieved. It is accepted, however, that the skills aimed at will not be developed if the exercises upon which they are ultimately to be practised do not in fact demand them. Therefore, two specimen exercises have been produced, and can be found in appendix 19 and 20.

The first exercise involves reading a short text, taken from a reader at equivalent level in another state (this text was first drawn to my attention, and some of the questions were supplied, by Dr N.S Prabhu). It covers:

- i. vocabulary in context: items 1, 1a, 4
- ii. vocabulary/structure (locating and interpreting a phrase) item 3
- iii. implication: items 2, 6, 9
- iv. referents: item 11/12
- v. world knowledge: geography/climate item 7
text type items 10, 13
- vi. creating and using global representations:
items 5, 7, 8, 13
(n.b. some items occur under more than one heading, as demanding more than one skill)

This text gives an example of how intellectually challenging questions can be extracted even from a fairly simple text, and a variety of comprehension skills can be tapped. The appendix also includes guidance for the teacher who has to deal with failure on the pupils' part.

The second text is different in character. First, it is much longer; it was set up to provide several days' work, whereas the first was intended as a single-period task. Second, it is intended to integrate the pupil much more closely into the story-writing task. Whereas the first example was primarily extractive, judgement being used mainly for grasping implication, or applying knowledge of the world, this

time, the pupil has to make judgements about how to integrate his responses with the text provided,

Therefore, there is a different range of tasks. Essentially, they are all gap-filling tasks, using a very wide range of clues; but they have been grouped in three broad categories:

- i. the short blanks on page 1 are essentially small-scale, not just in that they require in all but one case less than a sentence; they also tend to draw on clues from nearby - usually within the sentence itself, or a range of one sentence on either side. And they are heavily dependent on the syntax surrounding them. For example, blank 1 is part of an analogy - it has to be the opposite of "feared" - and has to supply referent for "they". Blank 2 demands "he + verb + phrase meaning 'many people'" - the verb being determined by "to enjoy the feasts ...". Blank 3 refers down one sentence - as far as "find a new cook" - and asks for some condign punishment for an excess of pepper, such as will disable the present cook for the foreseeable future - and so on.

ii. the longer blanks on the next two pages demand that a more extended piece of text be supplied, but within a highly repetitive format. The pupil who can grasp the structure of the story will see that we have three events with very similar underlying structure - Daoud is tempted, eats some food; the Sultan is shown up by a guest (thereby indicating the nature of what was eaten), Daoud is forced to trump up an explanation, which the sultan pretends to accept, because he is so happy with Daoud's cooking. Therefore, the pupil can grasp the structure of what she has to write with minimal difficulty; the precise details can be inferred from subsequent conversation; but there is considerable freedom to produce something which the pupil thinks is particularly appropriate in its phrasing.

iii. the final pair of blanks has a different structure. The first is highly predictable given the grasp pupils should by this stage have of the story - Daoud has to think up a good excuse - and given reasonable knowledge of the behaviour of cranes.

Without this latter element of knowledge, however, the task will fail. The second gap is less predictable, and gives pupils scope for an individual reaction - should Daoud be punished, should the Sultan put more stringent control on him in the kitchen, should he be forgiven? How can the sultan save face and at the same time keep his cook? If at all? Therefore, what should he do?

Thus the exercise is set up so that over a period of days the pupils first build up a grasp of the whole story, with only sentence-level exercises; then exploit and develop this grasp with a set of repetitive paragraph-level exercises; and finally, extrapolate in a highly predictable but not overly constrained context. The exercise is also set up so that one or (in the case of the first set of blanks) several of the gaps can be worked through in class, to prepare students to tackle the remainder, which can be set as individual or small-group tasks.

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APPENDIX 1

THE KARNATAKA STATE S.S.L.C. EXAMINATION (Sample)

(Under the Revised Pattern of School Education)

ENGLISH - Paper I

Time - Two hours and a half)

(Maximum Marks-100

Marks.

1. Answer any one of the following in about a page of ordinary writing (about 30 lines) :- 15
 - (a) How Corbett saved Lalajee's life.
 - (b) Describe the climbing of Everest.
 - (c) Lincoln at the slave-sale.
2. Answer any two of the following, each in a paragraph of about half a page:- 15
 - (a) How Booker Washington's students learnt that there was dignity in labour.
 - (b) Gandhiji's efforts to get rid of the jewels.
 - (c) Bruno's life in the zoo.
 - (d) Alfred Nobel's treatment of his workers.
3. Answer any five of the following, each in not more than five lines. (Choose three from Section A and two from Section B) :- 15
 - (A)
 - (i) Why was the statue of the Prince pulled down?
 - (ii) What did the Andersons do to make Bruno comfortable in their home?
 - (iii) How did Lalajee repay Corbett for his kindness?
 - (iv) How did Socrates spend his time?
 - (v) How do ants sometimes cross a stream?
 - (B)
 - (vi) What did the rider see when he stopped by the woods?
 - (vii) When do the Canadian boatmen stop rowing their boat?

- (viii) What did the dancing-girl ask Upagupta to do and what did he reply?

4. Read the following lines and answer the questions given below them:-

10

There was a roaring in the wind all night;
The rain came heavily and fell in floods;
But now the sun is rising calm and bright;
The birds are singing in the distant woods;
Over his own sweet voice the stock-dove broods,
The jay makes answer as the magpie chatters;
And all the air is filled with pleasant noise of waters.

Questions :-

- (i) What sounds were heard during the night?
- (ii) What sounds were heard after the storm?
- (iii) What was the stock-dove thinking about after the storm?
- (iv) Which creatures seemed to be talking to each other?
- (v) Was the poet happy when the storm was over?

5. Answer the following:-

10

- (a) Soon as the woods on shore look dim,
We'll sing at St. Ann's our parting hymn.

From "A Canadian Boat Song" by T. Moore.

When did the woods look dim?
What was St. Ann's?

- (b) Lamps were all out, doors were all shut, and
stars were all hidden by the Murky sky of
August.

From "Upagupta" by R. Tagore.

Were the lamps out because it was day time?
What is a 'murky sky'?

- (c) My bed should be of ivory
Of beaten gold my throne;

And in my court should peacocks flaunt,
And in my forests tigers haunt,

From "Tartary" by De La Mare.

Do these lines show that the Lord of Tartary
was rich?
Did he have possessions both inside his palace
and outside?

- (d) Ever in motion,
Blithesome and cheery,
Still climbing heavenward,
Never weary :-

From "The Fountain" by J.R. Lowell.

Did the fountain stop flowing?
In what words does the poet make it clear that
the fountain seems happy?

- (e) No time to turn at Beauty's glance,
And watch her feet, how they can dance.

From "Leisure" by W.H. Davies.

What is meant by 'Beauty's glance'?
For what reason should a person turn at
Beauty's glance?

6. Quote:-

10

- (a) The four lines that begin with -
And little bare feet in "A Piper".

- (b) The six lines that begin with -
Faintly as tolls in "A Canadian Boat Song".

7. Read the following passage quoted from your text, and
answer the questions given below it:-

10

It was the mango season, the hottest time of the year
when cholera is always at its worst. When the man
passed me at the foot of the gangway I suspected he
was suffering from cholera, and my suspicions were
confirmed when I saw him being violently sick. In
reply to my questions the man said he was travelling
alone, and had no friends at Mokameh Ghat; so I

helped him to his feet and led him the two hundred yards that separated my bungalow from the Ganges. Then I made him comfortable in my punkah-puller's house, which was empty, and detached from the servants' quarters.

Questions:-

- (a) How did Corbett know that the man had cholera?
- (b) What questions do you think Corbett asked the man?
- (c) Why was it safe for the cholera patient to stay in the punkah-puller's house?
- (d) At what time of the year is cholera at its worst?
- (e) How was the sick man able to walk for two hundred yards?

8. Read the following passage quoted from your text, and answer the questions given below it:- 10

He passed over the river, and saw the lanterns hanging to the masts of the ships. He passed over the Ghetto, and saw the old Jews bargaining with each other, and weighing out money in copper scales. At last he came to the poor house and looked in. The boy was tossing feverishly on his bed, and the mother had fallen asleep, she was so tired. In he hopped, and laid the great ruby on the table beside the woman's thimble. Then he flew gently round the bed, fanning the boy's forehead with his wings. "How cool I feel!" said the boy, "I must be getting better." And he sank into a delicious slumber.

Questions:-

- (a) Give the meaning of each of the following words, picking out the meaning from the ones given in brackets:-
 - (i) slumber (death; quiet state; sleep; bed).
 - (ii) lanterns (flags; birds; signals; lamps).
 - (iii) Ghetto (the town; the part of the town lived in by Jews; the houses of Jews; the jail).
 - (iv) thimble (a kind of needle; a box for thread; a finger-protector; a tumbler).

(b) Pick out, from the passage above, the words or phrases which mean:-

(i) crossed. (ii) trying to reduce prices.
(iii) moving restlessly. (iv) jumped.

(c) Pick out, from the passage above, the words which mean the opposite of:-

(i) roughly. (ii) unpleasant.

9. Punctuate the following passage, putting in capital letters wherever needed:-

5

Why can't you be like the Happy Prince asked a mother of her little boy who was crying for the moon.

Ap. 6

S.S.L.C. EXAMINATION

(Under the Revised pattern of School Education)

ENGLISH - Paper II

Time - 2½ Hours)

(Maximum Marks - 100

Marks.

1. Write an essay on any one of the following in about 15
a page of ordinary writing (about 30 lines):-
 - (a) The sports or games you like best.
 - (b) A great man who helped India.
 - (c) An important building in your town or village.
2. Write a letter in about half a page:- 10
 - (a) To the editor of a newspaper complaining about the dirtiness of the road where you live.
 - (b) To a friend telling him that you have applied for a job in a business firm in his town. Ask whether you may stay in his house on the day you have to come to his town to meet the Manager of the firm.
 - (c) Imagine that you live in your School Hostel and write to your mother asking her to send you some things that you need.
3. Read the following passage and answer the questions given below it:- 10

A man who lost a box containing a thousand rupees promised a reward of ten rupees to anyone who found it. The box was picked up from a road by a beggar who took it to a police station. When the loser was informed that his box was found he refused to pay the reward he had promised, saying that the box had actually contained over a thousand rupees, and the beggar must have stolen some. The police Inspector examined the box and found that it was sealed. He made the owner watch him while he broke the seal and found only a thousand rupees inside.

"You say that your box contained more than a

thousand rupees?" asked the Inspector.

"Yes, Sir," replied the mean man.

"Then this box cannot be yours and the man who found it can keep it," said the Inspector.

Questions:-

- (a) Did the beggar find the correct box?
- (b) What reason did the loser give for not paying the reward, and what was his real reason?
- (c) Did the Inspector force the miser to pay the reward?
- (d) How did the Inspector know that the beggar had not taken out some money before bringing the box to him?
- (e) Did the beggar receive any payment for his honesty?

4. (a) Rewrite the following sentences using indirect speech:-

4

- (i) "Please give this loaf of bread to that beggar," the baker requested his assistant.
- (ii) "Will you need your suitcase tomorrow?" my mother asked my father.
- (iii) "Why is it," he complained, "that someone is constantly taking away the books that I leave on this shelf?"
- (iv) "You can easily pass this examination," my teacher assured me.

- (b) Rewrite the following sentences using direct speech:-

4

- (i) The teacher insisted that the pupils should never forget to bring their textbooks to class.
- (ii) His father asked him when his school would close for the summer holidays.

- (c) Reproduce the following passage, filling in each blank with the correct form (voice and tense) of

4

the verb given after it:-

We _____ (look) at the blackboard on which
the questions _____ (write), but we
_____ (find) them too hard to answer although
we _____ (try) our best.

(d) Rewrite the following sentences as directed:-

4

- (i) We helped the dog to climb the wall, but it
fell over on the other side. (Change the
underlined part into a phrase).
- (ii) When the circus comes we shall go to see it.
(Change the underlined part into a phrase).
- (iii) The doctor's advice was to have a good rest.
I did not do so. (Combine into one
sentence beginning with although).
- (iv) The flowers are beautiful. The gardener has
taken good care of them. (Combine into one
sentence changing the second sentence into a
clause).

(e) In the conversation below the numbers given stand
for questions that are asked.

4

Write down the numbers and the questions they
stand for.

The clue to the questions will be found in the
answers that follow them:-

Passenger: (i) _____

Bus Conductor: No, this is not the bus for Erode.

Passenger: (ii) _____

Conductor: That bus will leave only at 4 p.m.

Passenger: (iii) _____

Conductor: I don't know if you will find any
seats available by the time the bus
reaches here.

Passengers: (iv) _____

Conductor: There is a later one at 9 p.m.

- (f) Rewrite the following sentences, filling in the blanks in each sentence with the negative of the verb found in the first part:- 3

(i) His horse fell into the river, but he _____ off its back.

(ii) The teacher cancelled the excursion but she _____ the holiday.

(iii) I like fruit but I _____ vegetables.

- (g) Reproduce the following passage, filling in each blank with the adjective given in brackets after it. The adjective should be put in the correct degree of comparison:- 4

Twelve years is the _____ (long) time that any child should spend in school. If he stays longer he will not become _____ (clever) than others. In fact, he is likely to be _____ (intelligent) than those who finish school at a much _____ (early) age.

- (h) Reproduce the following passage putting in a, an or the wherever needed:- 4

We will pack orange in each tiffin basket for picnic that we are going to have tomorrow. We hope to have good time if weather remains fine.

- (i) Reproduce the following passage filling in the blanks with suitable prepositions:- 4

We shall stay _____ the same house until the end _____ the month, and then shift _____ another street where all the houses are surrounded _____ gardens.

5. Reproduce the following passage, filling in the five blanks 10 in it with five words taken from the list given above it:-

dirty; difficult; volunteered; disgusted; failed; skill; constructed; string; department; superhuman.

We are _____ with the dirtiness of our town, so students have _____ to clean the roads, for which work no special _____ is needed, but if drains are to be _____ the sanitation _____ will have to help.

6. Rewrite the following sentences, filling in the blanks with the correct tense form of the verbs given in brackets:- 10

- (i) I _____ (invite) my friend to attend my wedding but he did not come.
- (ii) The concert _____ (begin) presently, and he _____ (sing) two songs.
- (iii) My teacher _____ (give) me full marks for the test which I _____ (do) last month.

7. Translate the following passage into the language you have taken under Part I:- 10

A fat man once went to a hotel and ordered a meal for three people. After waiting for some time he called out to know when it would be ready. The hotel-keeper said he had it quite ready. "Then why don't you bring it?" asked the fat man. "I am waiting for your friends," replied the hotel-keeper. "What friends," asked the man, "are you waiting for? The meal is for me."

APPENDIX 2 - Sample English Syllabus - Karnataka StateENGLISH SYLLABUS - STANDARDS V - VIIP R E F A C E

The syllabus for Standards V-VII covers the structural items and essential words (numbering about 130) which go with them and introduces some 1,200 additional words; approximately 800 (see list attached) of these are expected to become part of the child's active vocabulary and the remaining 400 are to be used and consolidated in subsequent years. Only head words are included in the list - Derivatives could be used as the situation demands and shown under the total number of words used in the text-book.

The syllabus consists of a list of Teaching Items for each year's work together with a list of formulas, and in the case of Standards VI and VII a list of additional teaching material. In the list of structures for Standard V many of the items are starred. This is to indicate their importance in comparison with the unstarred structures. Additional material is included for Standards VI-VII. These additional items should take less time to teach than the main items listed in the syllabus. They are items which will occur incidentally throughout the year and are likely to be well revised in subsequent years.

The formulas appended to the end of each section are to be used by the teacher as and when occasion demands but they are not to be taught to the children in a formal way, until such time as they are shown in the syllabus as Teaching Items. In this way the children hear them and become familiar with their meaning long before the items are formally taught.

Aims of the Syllabus: Teaching and Levels of Attainment

The teacher should develop the four skills of understanding, speaking, reading and writing. Although oral work predominates in the first few weeks (See Methodology below) teachers must aim at balanced development, giving time and attention to all skills. Reading and writing will be based on oral work and thus help to consolidate the structural and vocabulary items introduced orally.

Teaching at this level aims at laying the foundation of sentence structure and vocabulary to enable the student to develop his abilities in preparation for the later stages in the school. The emphasis must be on the practical use of language with understanding to help him to meet his future needs. The tendency to encourage rote learning for its own sake and the memorisation of reading passages (or summaries of them) is to be discouraged.

More specific levels of attainment pertaining to the four skills are as follows:

1. The pupils should be able to listen and understand short passages read out to him which consist of sentence patterns and vocabulary drawn from the syllabus.
2. He should be able to give spoken answers within the limits of the syllabus to questions based on passages he has read or heard. He should be able to give simple descriptions of objects, pictures and events within his experience. He should be able to retell simple stories in his own words. He should be able to ask questions and give directions. He should also be able to carry on short simple conversations on familiar topics.
3. The pupil should be able to read aloud sentences and short passages with clarity and understanding. He should be able to read silently with understanding, material within the range of the syllabus. He should be able to think about a passage and to guess the meaning of words from the context in a supplementary reader. In later years silent reading will have greater importance. All meaningful reading should involve recognition followed by interpretation.
4. The pupil should be able to write with accuracy sentences and short passages (within the limits of the syllabus) dictated to him. It is desirable to encourage a uniform type of handwriting, both unjoined and cursive; unjoined in the first year of English followed by cursive writing later on. He should be able to write short composition pieces and

letters, after adequate oral preparation. He should be able to write answers to spoken and written questions based on the language covered so far and on reading passages.

5. The pupil should be able to use the structural words and sentence patterns in the syllabus as indicated in 1-4 above. If he can do this he is using correct grammar. He learns grammar through examples and practice. Traditional "rules" have little or no relevance at this level.

VOCABULARY

A word list is appended to the syllabus. This contains approximately 800 words. It is not a rigid selection but chosen so that the text-book writer can produce interesting material for children from Standards V-VII. It contains only 800 words in order to leave the authors of the books and materials plenty of scope for additional words of their own. However, all the 800 words ought to be introduced in the first three years.

NUMBER OF PERIODS

The syllabus is designed to be covered in a daily period of English of forty minutes throughout the school year for all the standards.

TEACHER'S BOOK

In the teaching of this syllabus the Teacher's Handbook is the most important of the materials to be produced. This will explain to the teacher how to introduce orally the Teaching Items of the syllabus, when and where to use the Reader, what exercises

to give and what tests to administer. It will give guidance on all the teaching techniques and in addition advise the teacher with regard to revision and consolidation of structural and lexical items. In all cases the teacher should follow the Handbook, as it forms an integral part of the course and without it the Reader will be ineffective.

PUPIL'S BOOK

The Reader for each Standard will consist of practice and reading material incorporating the Items and vocabulary of the syllabus. It will contain oral and written exercises. Additional exercises will be printed in the Handbook.

POETRY

In the first three years of the English course not much emphasis is to be placed on the teaching of poetry, apart from simple rhymes and songs. A few simple poems may be read by the children with understanding and enjoyment.

GRAMMAR

There will be no formal teaching of grammatical terms in the first three years; children can be introduced to any necessary grammatical terminology from Standard VIII onwards. This does not mean that the children will not inductively acquire the elements of correct grammatical usage but that they will not acquire these through the manipulation of grammatical terms.

WRITTEN WORK

As no Workbook is to be prescribed there will be numerous exercises both in the children's Reader and in the Handbook.

Where exercises are given in the Reader they should be written out in full in the children's exercise books and then completed rather than filling in blanks, etc. in the actual text-book.

METHODOLOGY

It cannot be too often emphasised that the Teacher's Book is the prime tool in the teaching of English in these three years. The subject or story content of the text-book is relatively unimportant; the language used in the text-book is to be taught to the children and they should be able to comprehend and use on their own all the structural items of the syllabus. On no account should the text-book be memorised.

At least six weeks at the beginning of the first year should be devoted exclusively to oral work, without any reading or writing; the teaching of reading or writing should then be started, but the teacher should use flash cards and the blackboard; the reading passages from the book are not to be used until the children have acquired the elements of reading techniques.

SUPPLEMENTARY READERS

Supplementary readers should be prescribed for each class but should not be used for at least the first six months in Standard V. These readers must be written within the syllabus range of the previous six months or with a vocabulary extension of up to 15 per cent of extra words necessary for the stories and topics included in the reader.

TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS

Class tests and public examinations should be prepared in strict accordance with the aims of the syllabus and levels of

attainment mentioned above. Tests must test the practical use of English and not the ability to memorise the subject content of passages from the reader. Similarly, there should be no test in the subject content of supplementary readers.

The lists are a guide to be followed as far as possible by the writers of text-books and other professional material but not to be looked upon as a strait jacket from which they may not escape; the order of the Teaching Items may be changed if considered necessary.

ENGLISH SYLLABUS - STANDARDS V-VII

STANDARD V

(Duration: 40 No. of periods - 6)

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------|
| 1. This is..... | This is Ramu |
| That is..... | That is Sita. |
| (Personal names) | |
| 2. This is a..... | This is a book |
| That is a..... | That is a bag |
| 3. It is..... | It is red. It is big. |
| | It is tall. |
| 4. My, your | This is my book. |
| | That is your book. |
| 5. These are..... | These are pens. |
| Those are..... | Those are pencils. |
| 6. His, her | This is his eye. |
| | This is her nose. |
| 7. He is a..... | He is a boy. |
| She is a..... | She is a girl. |
| It is a..... | It is a bird. |
| 8. That/This is a+adj.+
noun | This is a big house. |
| These/Those are + adj.+
noun | These are small balls. |
| 9. What is this/that? | What is that? It is a ribbon. |
| 10. What colour is it? | What colour is it? It is blue. |
| 11. He/She/It/this is not.... | He is not a girl. |
| 12. He/She/It/is.....ing
(Intransitive and trans-
itive) | He is running. |
| | She is walking. |
| | It is flying. |
| 13(a)What is he/she/it doing? | He is drawing a tree. |
| (b)What is he/she/it doing
now? | What is he doing? |
| | He is eating. |

- | | |
|--|---|
| 14. <u>the</u> (the only one of its kind) | This is the blackboard. |
| 15. Prepositions <u>on</u> , <u>under</u> | My book is on the table.
Your book is under the table. |
| 16. <u>the</u> (the one referred to) | The ruler is on the box. |
| 17. in | His pen is in the bag. |
| 18. Where (as interrogative) | Where is her pen? |
| 19. Is this/that/he/she/it a..? | Is this a leaf? |
| Yes, it is | Is this a brown bag? |
| No, it is not | |
| 20.* (a) Present Continuous tense negative third person singular | She isn't hopping.
He isn't drawing a tree. |
| (b) Present Continuous tense Interrogative - third person singular | Is it swimming?
Is Basavaraj climbing a tree? |
| Transitive and intransitive | |
| 21.* (a) I am | I am Arvind |
| You are | You are Gopal. |
| (b) I am a..... | I am a teacher. |
| You are a..... | You are a pupil. |
| (c) I am not a..... | I am not a pupil. |
| You are not a..... | You aren't a teacher. |
| (d) Am I a.....? | Am I a teacher? |
| Are you a.....? | Are you a pupil? |
| 22.* (a) We are..... | We are boys. |
| You are..... | You are a pupil. |
| They are..... | They are cows. |
| (b) We/You/They are not..... | They are not drivers. |
| (c) Are we.....? | Are we teachers? |

- | | |
|--|---------------------------------|
| Are you.....? | Are you pupils? |
| Are they.....? | Are they postmen? |
| | Yes, they are. |
| 23.* (a) Are these/those.....? | Are these bananas? |
| Yes, they are | Yes, they are. |
| No, they aren't | Are those mangoes? |
| | No, they aren't. |
| (b) What are these/those? | They are kites. |
| 24.* I am..... ing | I am hopping. |
| You are.....ing | You are jumping. |
| (transitive and intransitive) | I am not pushing the table. |
| (Affirmative and interrogative). | You are not pulling the chair. |
| | Am I running? Are you |
| | reading a book? |
| 25.* (a) What am I doing? | |
| (b) What are you doing? | |
| 26. (a) Or (with nouns) | Are these houses or shops? |
| (b) Or (with adjectives) | Is this pen black or blue? |
| (c) Or (with verbs) | Is he reading or writing? |
| 27.* (a) Is it.....? | Is it blue? |
| Are they.....? | Are they big? |
| with adjectives of colour and size. | |
| (b) Is it on/in/under...? | Is it under the table? |
| Are they on/in/under? | Are they in the box? |
| 28. Days of the week | Today is Monday. |
| 29. Cardinal numbers | 1-100. |
| 30. What's the time? | It is five o'clock. |
| (hours and half hours) | It is half past two. |
| 31.* Was, Were | Yesterday was Sunday. |
| 32.* (a) Simple Past tense of regular verbs - affirmative all persons - singular/plural. | I opened the door. |
| | Shobha cleaned the black-board. |

- (b) What did..... do? What did Shankar do? He
Answers with simple jumped.
past tense of regu- What did we/they/you do?
lar and irregular We/they/you/opened the
verbs - all persons window.
singular.
33. An This is an orange.
34. and (a) with adjectives It is short and thick.
 Somu and Sundar, come here.
 (b) with nouns Bring me a pencil and a
 rubber.
- 35.* Present Continuous Tense (a) They are welking.
affirmative - all persons We are running.
(plural - intransitive (b) You are drawing circles.
and transitive)
36. (a) This/That (demon- This boy is tall.
strative adjectives) That girl is short.
 Is this/that ribbon long?
 (b) These/Those (demon- These/those houses are big.
strative adjectives) Are these/those flowers red?
- 37.* (a) Present Continuous They aren't drinking. We
Tense - Negative - aren't drawing trees.
all persons - plural
- (b) Present Continuous Are you dancing?
Tense - Interroga- Are they eating Bananas?
- tive - all persons -
 Transitive and In-
 transitive.
- 38.* What is.....ing? What is she eating?
(all persons) Bananas?
- What am I drawing? A
 house.
- 39.* Our/your/their This is our school.
 Your books are under the table.
 The pencils are in their bags.

- | | | |
|------|--|--|
| 40.* | in front of, behind
between | The teacher is behind the
table.
Kamala is in front of the
blackboard.
Channamma is between
Shantha and Sharada.
She ate a banana. |
| 41.* | (a) Simple past tense of
some common irre-
gular verbs affir-
mative.
(b) What did we/they/
you do? | We/They/You ate bananas |
| 42.* | There is a.....
Is there.....? | There is a book in my bag.
Is there a book on the table?
There are six flowers on the
table. |
| 43.* | There are.....
Are there.....? | Are there five balls under the
table? |
| 44. | <u>To</u> and <u>From</u> | He is going to the temple.
He is coming from the station. |

Note:- The items marked * above are the more difficult items and more time should be given to learning and revising such items than to the other items in the list.

FORMULAS

1. Good morning.
2. Good afternoon.
3. Stand up.
4. Sit down.
5. Look at this (picture)/the blackboard.
6. Listen to me.
7. Don't talk.

8. Say after me.
9. Say it again (please).
10. Let's say a rhyme/sing a song (say it together).
11. Bring me a...../Go and get.....
12. Show me/him/her a...../point to a.....
13. Are you ready?
14. This group (now)
15. Now
16. Speak up. I can't hear you. Louder, please.
17. Quietly(please).
18. Good./Well done!/Very good
19. Pick it up.
20. Put it away.

P.S.S. Vol - II - Stds. V to VII.

21. Put everything away.
22. Excuse me.
23. I'm sorry
24. What is your name?
25. Bring tomorrow.
26. Sit up straight.
27. Thank you. Not at all.
28. Touch the table.

STANDARD VI

(Duration of each period 40 minutes. No. of periods 6 per week)

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. How many
(with adverbial phrases
of place) | How many are there?
Four.
How many books are there in my
hand? |
| 2. Me you him her it
(as Direct Objects) | Two.
I am eating it.
She is calling me. |
| 3. me you him her it
(indirect Objects) | Give her a banana. |

- | | |
|--|---|
| 4. at the top of
at the bottom of
in the middle of | The line is at the top of
blackboard. |
| 5. its | This is a bird. Its tail is long. |
| 6. Who (interrogative) | Who is writing on the board? |
| 7. One (pronoun) | This one is red.
That one is blue. |
| 8. Which
(interrogative adjective) | Which book is on the table? |
| 9. us you them | He gave us a sweet.
He is standing behind us. |
| 10. adverbs and adverbial
phrases of time | To-day.
at six o'clock |
| 11. Simple past interroga-
tives and negatives | Did she jump?
No, she did not jump, she
hopped. |
| 12. Past Continuous Tense | What were you doing at seven
o'clock this morning?
We were having an English
lesson. |
| 13. General present -
Affirmative | I speak English |
| 14. every | I eat rice every day. |
| 15. General Present -
Negatives | I do not come to school on
Sundays. |
| 16. General present -
interrogatives | Do you eat bananas? |
| 17. Whose (interrogative
and replies) | Whose book is this?
It is Mohan's <u>book</u> . |
| 18. going to (intention) | I am going to buy a bicycle
tomorrow. |
| 19. How old is.....? | How old is Gulab?
He is eleven. |
| 20. Can cannot (with with-
out) | I can dance.
I cannot write without a pencil. |

- | | |
|---|---|
| 21. like want know (with
simple Objects) | I want a pen. I like sweets. |
| 22. When (interrogative) | When does the train arrive? |
| 23. Only. | There is only one bridge over
the river. |
| 24. have (possession) | I have two cars. |
| 25. fractions - telling the time
with fractions | Give me half an orange.
It is a quarter past twelve. |
| 26. What time.....? | What time do you come to school? |
| 27. Short forms of the long
forms taught so far | I'm a boy.
He's going to school.
You're girls. |
| 28. I've got a.....
(all persons; affirm-
ative interrogative and
negative). | I've got a blue pencil. |
| 29. Future of to be | Tomorrow will be Sunday. |

ADDITIONAL MATERIAL: STANDARD VI

The following additional material is to be taught during the Standard VI year. Not so much time will be given to these items compared with items 1-29 listed above.

PREPOSITIONS:

Out of Into over near before after (time)
up down at (position)

Examples:

Take the pencil out of your pocket.
Put it into this box.
Hold your hands up.
Now put them down.
The aeroplane is flying over the school.
There is a coconut tree near the house.

Ap.25

Monday comes before Tuesday.

Wednesday comes after Tuesday.

There is a man at the door.

Words and Phrases:

then; here; there; first; last; next; at home;
at school; a piece of; a bottle of, etc.

She walked to the table.

Then she walked to the door.

The table is here.

The chair is there.

Look at this word.

The first letter is B.

The next letter is A.

The last letter is G.

On Sunday I was at home.

On Monday I was at school.

Please give me a bottle of milk.

Have you got a piece of chalk?

NUMBERS:

Numbers up to 1000.

Ordinals: first to twelfth.

QUESTIONS:

What is his name?

What does he do? Occupations.

Examples:

What's his name?

His name is Kannan.

What does he do?

He's a clerk. He works in an Office.

FORMULAS

1. Count from..... to.....
2. That's right.
3. Give him/her.....
4. How much is.....? (referring to cost)
5. Can you hear me?
6. Can I have your pen?
7. I want a piece of chalk.
8. Do it like this.
9. Please stop. That's enough.
10. Now it's your turn.
11. Don't make so much noise.
12. Excellent.
13. It's not big enough.
14. It's too small.
15. Do you want a.....?
16. Do you like this one?
17. Never mind.
18. What's the matter?

STANDARD VII

(Duration of each period 40 minutes. No. of periods per week 6.)

- | | |
|------------------------------|---|
| 1. Future of to be: | (Today I am at school). |
| affirmative | Tomorrow I will be at home. |
| 2. too (=also) | Padma is a girl. |
| | Jamila is a girl too. |
| 3. Future of to be: negative | They will not be at home this evening. |
| 4. Future of Finite verbs | I will go to the doctor tomorrow morning. |

- | | |
|---|---|
| 5. Present Perfect:
affirmative, negative
and interrogative. | I have cleaned the blackboard.
Kuppan has not washed his face.
Have you done your home-work? |
| 6. Uncountables | This is ink. That is milk. |
| 7. Some any no
Countables uncountables | There is some coffee in the jug.
There is no clock in this room. |
| 8. Something anything
Nothing | There is something in my hand.
Is there anything in my pocket?
There is nothing in the drawer. |
| 9. Subject + verb + in-
direct object + direct
object - affirmative
negative and interroga-
tive. | I gave him a ball.
Are you going to give Padma
a ribbon? |
| 10. Someone Anyone Everyone
No-one | There is some-one near the gate.
Can anyone here lend me a pen?
Everyone in the class speaks
Kannada.
No one goes to school on Sundays. |
| 11. Possessive pronouns used
predicatively and non-
predicatively | This is mine.
Mine is blue. |
| 12. How many of them.....? | How many of these children are boys. |
| 13. Which.....? both.....? | Both the pencils are sharp.
Which did you break yesterday? |
| 14. Adjectival clauses with the
relative omitted | The pen I gave Padma is long.
He sold the picture I painted. |
| 15. Some Any None | There are some on the desk.
How many have you got? None. |
| 16. Many a lot of a few | There are not many books on the
shelf.
There are a lot of books in the
cupboard.
There are only a few matches in
this box. |

- | | |
|---|---|
| 17. If (with simple tenses) | If I have a piece of chalk
I can write on the blackboard. |
| 18. Want +to | I want to draw a cat. |
| 19. How much.....?
a little..... a lot of....
(with uncountables) | How much water is there in this jug?
There is only a little.
There is a lot of water in the tank. |
| 20. help + noun/pronoun
+ to | Will you help me to clean the blackboard? |
| 21. too (= excessively) and
enough | The box is too heavy for me to lift.
I am not strong enough to lift the box. |
| 22. ask and tell. | He told me to close the windows.
I asked him to bring me a glass of water. |
| 23. Still yet already | John is still in Bombay.
Has she given you the money yet?
They know two hundred words already. |
| 24. Reflexive pronouns | He fell down and hurt himself. |
| 25. for+ing forms | What is this knife for?
It is for cutting bread.
What is a pen for?
It is for writing. |
| 26. Another the other(s) | There is another picture on page 6.
One is small, the other is large. |
| 27. While | While I was coming to school I saw Mr. Srinivasan. |
| 28. When (conjunction) | What did he say when you gave him a rupee? |

- When you find the book, bring it here.
29. More some more no
more many more any
more a little more a
lot more a few more
more (of)
- I want two more books.
30. More less
- He is more important than my brother.
Vegetables are less expensive than meat.
31. Comparatives
- Padma is as tall as Suriya.
There are not as many books here as in the library.
32. Used to
- When I was in Madras I used to go to the beach every Sunday.
33. Comparatives - er - est
and common irregulars.
- Kuppan is taller than Padma.
Who is the tallest boy in the class?
Which class has the fewest pupils in it?
His handwriting is better than yours.

ADDITIONAL MATERIAL - STANDARD VII

The following additional material is to be taught during the Standard VII year. Not so much time will be given to these items compared with Items 1-33 listed above.

PREPOSITIONS

By (position) against (position) up (direction)
down (direction) with (in company) across (direction)
along (direction) through (direction) round (position and

direction) about (concerning) about (approximately)
beside (position) during, for, since.

Examples:

I'm standing by the door.
You are leaning against the wall.
He is looking up at the sky.
He lives down that road.
I am going for a walk with my sister.
John is riding his horse across those fields.
He can't go through that gate. He's too fat.
Geetha, run round the class.
Gopal told his friends about the lions in the circus.
Ravi weighs about thirty kilos.
Come and sit beside me and I'll tell you a story.
Kannan was riding along the road when a black car
knocked him down.
The rabbits ate up all our carrots during the night.
I haven't seen him since Monday.
He has lived here for ten years.

Words and Phrases:

1. On the right/left
2. Made of full of
3. Never, often, usually, always, ever, etc.
4. What kind of.....?
5. Why.....?
6. How far.....?
7. Get please
8. In (measurements)
9. To have dinner, very
10. Ago
11. Perhaps
12. a number of

Examples:

Padma is on my right. Gopal is on my left.
This bag is made of paper. It's full of sweets.
I never go to school on Sundays.
I often go to the cinema.
My friend usually plays football in the evenings.
Ravi always walks to school.
Have you ever seen a pink elephant?
What kind of a tree is that? a mango tree.
Why didn't Padma come to school yesterday?
Because she was ill.
How far is it to the market? Only two miles.
Get me a glass of water, please.
There are sixty seconds in a minute.
We have breakfast at eight o'clock.
That line is very long.
Padma was here ten minutes ago.
Ravi is absent. Perhaps he is ill.
A number of visitors came to the school this morning.
100 - 1000 - date

Time: - Time - five past.... He wrote that letter on
11th March, 1971.

Times: - once twice three times
(the eleventh of March 1971).

Examples:

I come to school at half past nine.
What's the time? It's half past ten.
He wrote his name on the blackboard three times.
He goes to the cinema once a week.
She's been to Calcutta twice.

FORMULAS

1. It's time to go home.
2. Tell him/her to.....
3. What else?
4. Ask him/her/them to.....
5. That's the way to do it.
6. There aren't enough.
7. Who will bring me.....?
8. Have you broken the lead?
9. Sharpen your pencil with this.....
10. Will you give these out?
11. Which do you like best?
12. Have you seen a.....?
13. Have you been to (a)?
14. That's not the way to do it.
15. Do you remember?
16. Have you forgotten?
17. Borrow one from.....
18. That will do.
19. Now go on.
20. Please help her; she can't do it.
21. Were you ill?
22. I'm sorry I'm late. May I come in?
23. Why are you late?
24. Don't be late tomorrow.
25. Answer the/my/this question.

SUGGESTED VOCABULARY FOR REVISED SYLLABUS

KARNATAKA - STANDARDS V TO VII

This vocabulary list contains approximately 800 words.
Ordinal number 1 - 12 and cardinal numbers 1 to 1000 are

included in the syllabus but have been omitted from the list below. No proper names are included except for the months of the year and days of the week.

This list is to be regarded as a list of basic words. The number of words taught in Standards V - VII will be more than 800 but the selection of extra words, subject to an overall maximum of 1,200 words, can be made by the authors of the Readers and the Teachers for those standards.

A separate list of essential structural words is appended to the list of structural teaching items.

LIST OF WORDS FOR STANDARD - V

1	aeroplane	33	bullock	65	dance
2	angry	34	bus	66	day
3	animal	35	butterfly	67	dirty
4	answer	36	button	68	doctor
5	ant	37	buy	69	dog
6	arm	38	calendar	70	doll
7	ask	39	cap	71	door
8	asleep	40	car	72	draw
9	baby	41	carry	73	drawer
10	bag	42	cart	74	dress
11	ball	43	cat	75	drink
12	balloon	44	chair	76	driver
13	banana	45	chalk	77	duster
14	bangle	46	children	78	ear
15	basket	47	circle	79	eat
16	bat	48	class	80	elephant
17	ball	49	classroom	81	engine
18	bed	50	clean	82	face
19	bench	51	climb	83	fat
20	bicycle	52	clock	84	family
21	big	53	coal	85	farmer
22	bird	54	coconut	86	father
23	biscuit	55	coffee	87	field
24	black	56	colour	88	finger
25	blackboard	57	comb	89	fish
26	blouse	58	come	90	fisherman
27	book	59	cow	91	flag
28	bottle	60	crow	92	floor
29	box	61	cry	93	flower
30	boy	62	cup	94	fly
31	brother	63	cupboard	95	foot
32	brown	64	cut	96	football

97	front	131	lift	165	page
98	garden	132	lip	166	paper
99	gate	133	listen	167	part
100	girl	134	little	168	pen
101	glass	135	long	169	pencil
102	go	136	look	170	period
103	good	137	lorry	171	picture
104	green	138	man	172	pin
105	ground	139	mango	173	plate
106	half-past	140	marble	174	play
107	hand	141	market	175	player
108	happy	142	mat	176	playground
109	hat	143	match	177	pocket
110	head	144	medicine	178	Policeman
111	headmaster	145	milk	179	police-station
112	heavy	146	monkey	180	post card
113	hill	147	month	181	post-office
114	hold	148	moon	182	postman
115	hop	149	mother	183	pot
116	hospital	150	mouth	184	pray
117	ink	151	Mr.	185	pull
118	jump	152	Mrs.	186	push
119	key	153	name	187	put
120	kink	154	new	188	pupil
121	kite	155	newspaper	189	purse
122	knife	156	now	190	radio
123	lamp	157	nose	191	rain
124	late	158	noise	192	read
125	laugh	159	nurse	193	red
126	leaf	160	o'clock	194	ribbon
127	leg	161	office	195	rice
128	lesson	162	oil	196	rich
129	letter	163	open	197	ring
130	light	164	orange	198	river

199	road	233	stick	267	watch
200	room	234	stone	268	water
201	roof	235	stop	269	wear
202	rubber	236	story	270	whistle
203	run	237	strong	271	window
204	ruler	238	student	272	woman
205	rupee	239	sugar	273	write
206	sad	240	sun	274	yellow
207	school	241	sweet	275	yes
208	seat	242	swim	276	yesterday
209	seed	243	table		
210	sell	244	tea		
211	sentence	245	teach		
212	shirt	246	teacher		
213	shoe	247	tailor	a	no
214	shop	248	take	an	not
215	shopkeeper	249	tall	am	on
216	short	250	talk	and	one
217	shout	251	thick	are	our
218	shut	252	thin	be	she
219	sing	253	today	behind	that
220	sister	254	tomorrow	between	the
221		255	tongue	do (did)	their
222		256	tooth	from	there
223	skip	257	top	he	they
224	sky	258	touch	her	these
225	sleep	259	train	him	this
226	small	260	tree	his	those
227	smile	261	umbrella	in/in front of	to
228	snake	262	van	is	way
229	spoon	263	village	it	we
230	stamp	264	walk		what
231	stand	265	wall	my	where
232	star	266	wash		were
					you
					your

Numbers 1 to 100 Ordinals first to tenth,
Names of months and days.

STANDARD VI

1	afraid	33	cinema	65	fear
2	again	34	clever	66	feathers
3	ago	35	close (v)	67	feeling
4	allow	36	clothes	68	fell
5	alone	37	cloud	69	festival
6	along	38	cold	70	fight
7	another	39	continue	71	fill
8	around	40	cook	72	find
9	arrive	41	corner	73	fire
10	ask	42	country	74	follow
11	awake	43	cross-road	75	food
12	away	44	cruel	76	forest
13	back	45	dangerous	77	forget
14	bank	46	dark	78	friend
15	bath	47	dear	79	full/of
16	beat	48	deep	80	fun
17	beautiful	49	describe	81	funny
18	begin	50	die	82	games
19	birthday	51	dinner	83	get off
20	branch	52	drop	84	get on
21	brave	53	drowning	85	get well
22	breakfast	54	dull	86	grape
23	bright	55	early	87	grow
24	bring	56	earth	88	grow up
25	bucket	57	electricity	89	gum
26	build	58	enjoy	90	hang
27	cafe	59	evening	91	happen
28	carpenter	60	examination	92	happily
29	carpet	61	factory	93	help
30	catch	62	fair	94	head
31	ceiling	63	famous	95	hear
32	celebrate	64	fast	96	hide

97	hole	133	minute	169	question
98	holy	134	moon/light	170	quick
99	home	135	morning	171	quiet
100	hotel	136	near	172	railway station
101	hot	137	nephew	173	reach
102	hour	138	next	174	ready
103	hungry	139	nice	175	real
104	hunt	140	neighbour	176	recognise
105	illness	141	night	177	remember
106	invite	142	open/space	178	remove
107	just then	143	pack	179	respect
108	journey	144	packet	180	result
109	king	145	parents	181	right
110	kingdom	146	pass	182	roar
111	kill	147	path	183	rock
112	kind	148	pay	184	rocket
113	kitchen	149	people	185	roll
114	knock	150	photograph	186	round (adj.)
115	land	151	a piece of	187	round (adv.)
116	leader	152	places	188	row
117	leave	153	plants	189	rule (v)
118	look for	154	play ful	190	salute
119	look at	155	please	191	scream
120	lose	156	pond	192	season
121	loss	157	point at	193	serious
122	load	158	point to	194	servant
123	loud	159	poor	195	serve
124	love	160	prayers	196	serve
125	lovely	161	present	197	shake/hands
126	loving	162	pretty	198	shelf
127	make (money)	163	promise	199	shine
128	manager	164	proud of	200	shoot
129	marry	165	pup	201	shoulder
130	mean	166	put on	202	shy
131	merchant	167	quarrel	203	sight
132	mile	168	quarter	204	silent

205	simple	240	trick
206	size	241	trouble
207	skin	242	trunk
208	slip	243	truth
209	slowly	244	true
210	smooth	245	turn
211	soap	246	uncle
212	sometime	247	unhappy
213	soon	248	visit
214	sorry	249	wait
215	speak	250	wake up
216	special	251	watch (v)
217	spend	252	watchman
218	spread	253	wave
219	spring	254	way
220	start	255	weak
221	street	256	week
222	strong	257	weigh
223	suddenly	258	well
224	summer	259	well (n)
225	sun	260	wet
226	sun rise	261	wide
227	sun set	262	wild
228	take aim	263	wind
229	take leave	264	wing
230	tear	265	work
231	tell	266	world
232	temple	267	year
233	thirsty	P.S.S. Vol -II - Stds. V to VII	
234	throw	268	young
235	tie (v)	269	zoo

236 tired
237 towards
238 town
239 tractor

after
a few
a lot of
always

at the top of
at the bottom of
before
both
by
can/not
down
has/have
how far
how many
how old
may
more
near
next
will

STANDARD - VII

above	brick	deer	grass	live
ache stomach	bridge	dentist	great	loose
head	brinjal	desk	grey	lot
back	broom	difficult	hair	lunch
afternoon	brush	dish	hard	machine
agree	busy	donkey	health	map
air	butter	dosai	hermit	marriage
airport	cabbage	driver	high	meal
all right	call	drum	hit	measure
already	camel	dry	hockey	mend
always	capital	duck	horse	meet
arithmetic	carrot	earring	hurry	middle
army	cattle	easy	husband	mistake
aunt	cement	east	hut	mix
axe	chicken	egg	if	modern
bad	chin	empty	insect	money
badminton	circus	end	island	mongoose
bamboo	city	engineer	jar	mosque
barber	clerk	envelope	jasmine	mountain
bazaar	clip	exercise	kilo	mouse
bean (n)	cloth	eye	king	move
bear (v)	clown	farm	knee	mud
because	cock	fold	know	music
best	coin	frog	ladder	nail
blanket	compound	fruit	lake	narrow
blow	coolie	furniture	lamb	neck
blue	cotton	garage	large	neighbour
board	cough	gardener	lay	nest
boat	cousin	garland	lazy	net
born	crane	get to	learn	niece
both	crash	get up	let	noisy
bottom	cricket	goat	library	north
box of	crowd	god	lie	number
matches	curry	goddess	lime	nut
bread	date	gold	lion	official

old	save	tank	whisper
paddy	say	taste	wide
paise	scooter	telephone	wife
parcel	soap	tent	win
party	season	test	wise
peace	send	thing	wish
petrol	shape	think	wood
pick	sheep	ticket	wood cutter
pick up	ship	tiger	waken
pipe	shorts	tin	wrong
platform	show	toe	yet
plough	side	toffee	about
poem	silver	tomato	across
porter	sir	tonight	along
potato	smell	towel	against
pour	smoke	triangle	a little
price	soft	trousers	another
prize	soldier	trust	any
queen	something	try	any-one
rainy	sound	ugly	as-as
reply	south	understand	during
rest	sport	use (n & v)	ever
rhyme	spider	useful	everyone
ripe	splash	valley	for
rise	square	vegetable	full/or
root	start	visitor	got
rope	station	voice	going to
rose	station master	war	here
rough	stay	warm	if
sack	steal	weather	less
safe	steel	wedding	like
salt	step	weight	never
sail	still	welcome	none
same	stork	west	no/one
sand	sunny	wheat	nothing
sari	supper	wheel	through
			without

Common words and phrases included in teaching items.

Those occurring in additional material for Standards VI-VII are shown in Brackets.

(about)	(during)	like	them
(across)	enough	many	(then)
(after)	(ever)	me	(there)
(ago)	every	mine	these
against	everyone	(made of)	they
(along)	for	more	this
a few	from	my	(through)
a little	(full of)	(near)	to
a lot of	got	(never)	too
already	going to	(next)	under
(always)	(future)	no	(up)
am	has	no one	us
and	have	not	used to
another	he	nothing	(usually)
any	her	on	very
anyone	(here)	(on the right)	was
anything	him	(on the left)	we
are	his	one	were
as (as-as)	(how far)	only	what
at	how many	or	what time
at the top of	how much	at o'clock	when
at the bottom of	how old	our	which
(before)	I	(out of)	while
behind	in	(over)	who
(beside)	in front of	she	whose
between	in the middle of	(since)	will
both	(into)	some	with
by	is	someone	without
can	it	something	yet
cannot	its	still	you
did	(last)	the	your
(down)	less	their	

Numerals

Cardinals 1 - 1000

Ordinals 1 - 20

Fractions (time)

half

quarter

APPENDIX 3 - The "Daoud" Test.

i. Text:

Reading Comprehension

Read the following passage carefully:

There once lived a sultan named Ali, who ruled over a kingdom of many thousands of people. He was loved by his people, and his neighbours, because he was a generous man, but he was also feared because of his hot temper. Almost every night at the palace, except during times of fasting, there was a great feast with many guests. One day, his chief cook was sent to prison for life, for putting too much pepper* in the soup. The Prime Minister looked everywhere for a new cook. Finally he found a man called Daoud, who worked for a merchant in Penang. The merchant said "He is a very good cook, but I cannot stop him eating the food he cooks. Sometimes there is almost nothing left by the time it gets to the table."

The sultan praised Daoud's cooking, and sometimes sent Daoud a piece of gold after a great feast. At first Daoud was careful only to take a small piece from each dish, but he felt very sad when he saw dish after dish of beautiful food leave the kitchen for the dining room.

One day there was a special feast, and Daoud cooked roast crane*, with honey and cashew nuts, and sweet spices of many lands. Soon, he tasted it, and it was so good that he ate a whole leg before he could stop. The sultan was very angry. "Evil man", he said, "What have you to say before I cut you into one thousand pieces?" "Your majesty", said Daoud, "that bird was a crane, and cranes have only one leg." And he went to the palace lake, and showed the sultan the cranes, standing

on one leg, with the other held tight against their body out of sight. "I see," said the sultan, "well, perhaps you are right this time. But from now on the Prime Minister must sit in the kitchen, and if this happens again, I will have you both trampled by the Royal Elephants!"

* pepper - *ut e se*

*crane - *3 4 5*

ii. Test items

Now do these. Underline the phrase in the brackets that best completes the sentence:

1. People liked Ali because he (was a good cook/ gave good feasts/ was kind/ had a hot temper)
2. But they were afraid of him because he (got angry easily/ ruled a great kingdom/ stole food/ locked up his guests)
3. The chief cook was punished because he (ate the sultan's food/ tried to poison the sultan/ was a bad cook/ made a bad soup)
4. In Penang, Daoud was (a cook/ a merchant/ Prime Minister/ in prison)
5. The bad thing about Daoud was that he (put too much pepper in the soup/ took a piece of gold/ was not a good cook/ ate the food he cooked for his master)
6. Daoud was sad because (his cooking was good/ he cooked for the sultan, not for himself/ his cooking was bad/ he had eaten his master's food).
7. For the special feast, Daoud cooked (roast crane/ honey and cashew nuts/ beautiful food/ elephant)
8. The sultan was very angry because (Daoud's cooking was bad/ Daoud was evil/ Daoud had taken a lot of food/ he did not like crane)
9. Daoud said that cranes have only one leg because (he had eaten one leg/ he had cooked a one-legged crane/ one leg had been

lost/ he wanted the sultan to think it was a rare bird)

10. How did the sultan treat Daoud? He (believed/ punished/
rewarded/ forgave) him.

To answer the next five questions, write one sentence for each question:

1. Who had to find the new cook?
2. Why did Daoud eat a whole leg of crane?.....
3. How did Daoud show that cranes have only one leg?.....
.....
4. Why did the sultan pretend to believe Daoud?.....
.....
5. What was the Prime Minister sent to the kitchen for?.....
.....

iii. Answer Pattern: part 1 - multiple choice

1. pattern of responses:

Item	Top half; N 46					Bottom half; N 46				
	Response					Response				
	1	2	3	4	N/R	1	2	3	4	N/R
1	14	3	<u>2</u>	27	0	19	3	<u>3</u>	21	0
2	<u>11</u>	11	4	19	1	<u>4</u>	27	4	11	0
3	9	4	14	<u>18</u>	1	10	118	9	<u>15</u>	2
4	<u>14</u>	13	10	6	3	<u>2</u>	22	15	6	1
5	16	10	5	<u>14</u>	1	18	9	12	<u>5</u>	2
6	16	<u>17</u>	8	3	2	24	<u>9</u>	5	3	5
7	<u>16</u>	6	13	6	5	<u>13</u>	5	16	3	9
8	12	10	<u>17</u>	5	2	4	17	<u>6</u>	17	2
9	<u>27</u>	5	6	7	1	<u>12</u>	7	14	5	8
10	11	11	4	<u>16</u>	4	12	9	8	<u>8</u>	9

correct
response

2. Totals and percentages

Item	Totals					Percentages				
	1	2	3	4	N/R	1	2	3	4	N/R
1	33	6	5	48	0	36	7	5	52	0
2	15	38	8	30	1	16	41	9	33	1
3	19	15	23	33	2	21	16	25	36	2
4	16	35	25	12	4	17	38	27	13	5
5	34	19	17	19	3	37	21	18	21	3
6	40	26	13	6	7	43	28	14	7	8
7	29	11	29	9	14	32	12	32	10	14
8	16	27	23	22	4	17	29	25	24	5
9	39	12	20	12	9	42	13	22	13	10
10	23	20	12	24	13	25	22	13	26	14

3. Proportions selecting alternatives

Item	Top half					Bottom half				
	1	2	3	4	N/R	1	2	3	4	N/R
1	.30	.06	.04	.59	0	.41	.06	.06	.46	0
2	.24	.24	.09	.41	.02	.09	.59	.09	.24	0
3	.20	.09	.30	.39	.02	.22	.24	.20	.33	.04
4	.30	.28	.22	.13	.06	.04	.48	.33	.13	.02
5	.35	.22	.11	.30	.02	.39	.20	.26	.11	.04
6	.35	.37	.17	.06	.04	.52	.20	.11	.06	.11
7	.35	.13	.28	.13	.11	.28	.11	.35	.06	.20
8	.26	.22	.37	.11	.04	.09	.37	.13	.37	.04
9	.59	.11	.13	.15	.02	.26	.15	.30	.11	.17
10	.24	.24	.09	.35	.09	.26	.20	.17	.17	.20

4. Differences between proportions in top and bottom halves:

Item	1	2	3	4	N/R
1	-.11	0	0.02	.13	0
2	.15	-.35	0	.17	.02
3	-.02	-.15	.11	.06	-.02
4	.26	-.20	0.11	0	.04
5	-.04	.02	-.15	.20	-.02
6	-.17	.17	.06	0	-.06
7	.06	.02	-.06	.06	-.09
8	.17	-.15	.24	-.26	0
9	.33	-.04	-.17	.04	-.15
10	-.02	.04	-.09	.17	-.11

5. Percentage choosing each alternative:

a) top ten	Item	Alternative	%age choosing
	1	4	52
	6	1	43
	9	1	42
	2	2	41
	4	2	38
	5	1	37
	1	1	36
	3	4	36
	2	4	33
	7	1	32
	7	3	32
b) bottom ten	4	4	13
	9	2	13
	9	4	13
	10	3	13
	7	2	12

<u>Item</u>	<u>Alternative</u>	<u>% age choosing</u>
7	4	10
2	3	9
1	2	7
6	4	7
1	3	5

6. 'most' and 'least' discriminating items

Most discriminating			Least discriminating		
Item	alternative	E_{13}	Item	alternative	E_{13}
2	2	-.35	1	2	0
9	1	.35	2	3	0
4	1	.26	4	4	0
8	4	-.26	6	4	0
8	3	.24	1	3	-.02
5	4	.20	3	1	-.02
4	2	-.20	10	1	-.02
2	4	.17	5	2	.02
6	2	.17	7	2	.02
8	1	.17	5	1	-.04
10	4	.17	9	2	-.04
6	1	-.17	9	4	.04
9	3	-.17	10	2	.04
2	1	.15	7	3	-.06
3	2	-.15	3	4	.06
5	3	-.15	6	3	.06
8	2	-.15	7	1	.06
1	4	.13	7	4	.06
			10	3	-.09
			1	1	-.11
			4	3	-.11
			3	3	.11

iv. Answer Pattern part II - free-response questions

	Top Half	Bottom Half
<u>Item 1</u>		
i. 'Correct Answer' (i.e., 'The Prime Minister')	3	0
ii. 'Attempt at Both'	0	0
iii. 'Attempt at Answer'		
The Sultan	1	1
The New cook was Daoud	0	1
Daoud had to find the new cook	2	0
iv. 'Appropriate Quotation'		
The Prime Minister looked everywhere for a new cook	21	18
v. 'Excessive Quotation'		
One day his chief cook..... everywhere for a new cook'	3	1
vi. 'Misquotation'		
One day his chief cook..... in the soup	4	1
One day his chief cook..... for life	0	4
One day his chief cook was	0	1
The merchant said, eating the food he cooks'	0	1
'He is a good cook..... eating the food he cooks'	2	1
The merchant said, 'he is a good cook'	3	2
For the special feast, Daoud cooked	1	0
People liked Ali because he was kind	0	1
vii. 'Other'	0	0
viii. No response	6	14

	Top	Bottom
	Half	Half
<u>Item 2</u>		
i. 'Correct Answer' (i.e., it tasted good)	1	0
ii. 'Attempt at both'	0	0
iii. 'Attempt at Answer'	0	0
iv. 'Appropriate Quotation'		
He tasted it, before he could stop	5	1
v. 'Excessive Quotation'	0	0
vi. 'Misquotation'		
One day there was.... with honey and cashew nuts	1	0
One day there was roast crane	8	5
One day there was..... and Daoud	1	0
One day there was a special	0	1
with honey and cashew	0	1
That bird was a crane, and cranes have only one leg	6	3
That bird was a crane, and cranes have only one	0	1
That bird was a crane, and cranes	0	1
Crane, and cranes have only one leg	0	1
Finally he found...'He is a very good cook'	0	1
the merchant said ... food he cooks'	0	1
the merchant said.... I can't stop him	0	1
The sultan praised Daoud's cooking	0	1

	Top	Bottom
said Daoud, ... and showed the sultan the cranes	0	1
and showed the sultan ... on one leg	0	4
The sultan was ... thousand pieces?'	1	0
vii. 'Other'		
Food leave the king for the Daoud room	0	3
viii. No response	23	20

Item 3

i. 'Correct Answer'	0	0
ii. 'Attempt at Both'	0	0
iii. 'Attempt at Answer'	0	0
iv. 'Appropriate Quotation'		
and he went to the palace lake ... standing on one leg	5	1
cranes standing on one leg	0	1
v. 'Excessive Quotation'	0	0
vi. 'Misquotation'		
Your majesty, that bird ... have only one leg	3	6
that bird ... have only one leg	12	6
that bird was a crane	2	0
and cranes have only one leg	2	0
Your majesty, that bird was	0	1
Soon, he tasted it ... he could stop	2	3
and it was so good ... he could stop	0	1
whole leg before he could stop	0	1

	Top	Bottom
vii. 'Other'	0	0
viii. No Response	20	26

Item 4

i. 'Correct Answer'	0	0
ii. 'Attempt at Both'	0	0
iii. 'Attempt at Answer'	0	0
iv. 'Appropriate Quotation'	0	0
v. 'Excessive Quotation'	0	0
vi. 'Misquotation'		
There once lived ... kingdom of many	1	0
At first Daoud was careful ... from each dish	0	1
Daoud cooked roast crane	1	0
honey and cashew nuts ... many lands	1	0
Soon he tasted ... before he could stop	0	1
The sultan was very angry. 'Evil man!'	2	0
He went to the palace lake... on one leg	3	0
I see, well perhaps you are right this time	1	6
If this happens again ... by the royal elephants	1	0
But from now on ... and if this	0	2
vii. 'Other'		
praised Daoud's cooking highly and pretended to believe	0	2
viii. No Response	36	34

	Top	Bottom
<u>Item 5</u>		
i. 'Correct Answer'	0	0
ii. 'Attempt at Both'	0	0
iii. 'Attempt at Answer'	0	0
iv. 'Correct Quotation'		
But from now on ... Royal Elephants	4	0
this happens again ... Royal Elephants	0	3
The Prime Minister must ... Royal Elephants	0	2
v. 'Excessive Quotation'	0	0
vi. 'Misquotation'		
But from now on the Prime Minister must sit in the kitchen	19	20
the Prime Minister ... have you both	1	0
the Prime Minister ... this happens	2	0
the Prime Minister ... this happens again	0	2
must sit in the kitchen	0	1
The Prime Minister looked everywhere for a new cook	1	3
when he saw dish after dish ... for the dining room	1	0
vii. 'Other'	0	0
viii. 'No Response'	15	18

APPENDIX 4 - The 'Coconut Trees' Test

i. Text

Reading Comprehension - Coconut Trees

Coconut trees are very useful, and they grow in many tropical countries. You can see roofs which are made of their leaves. Ropes and mats can also be made from coconut trees. The nuts give us food and oil. We can use this oil in different ways. We can use it in cooking, and also for producing things in factories. For example, it can be used for making soap, toothpastes and paint.

Now answer these questions:

1. What kind of countries do coconut trees grow in?
2. What are the leaves used for?
3. Which part of the tree produces food?
4. How is the oil used?
5. What things can be made from the oil?
6. Why is the coconut tree very useful?

ii. Answer Pattern: (No. of students = $50 + 49 = 99$)

	<u>Frequency</u>
1. Correct Answer (i.e., 'tropical countries', etc.)	14
Quoting first sentence (i.e., Coconut trees ... tropical countries)	58
Quoting first line (i.e., Coconut trees ... many tropical)	15
Other ('coconut trees are very useful')	1
No response	11
2. Correct answer (i.e., 'the leaves are used for roofs')	9
Quoting second sentence:	
'You can see roofs which are made of their leaves'	52
'roofs which are made of their leaves'	3
'which are made of their leaves'	1
'The leaves are used you can see roofs which are made of their leaves'	5
Misquoting:	
'Ropes and mats can also be made from coconut trees'	9
'their leaves Ropes and mats can also be made from coconut trees'	2
Excessive quotation:	
'You can see ... from coconut trees'	4
No response:	14
3. Correct (The nuts give us food):	0

	<u>Frequency</u>
Quoting fourth sentence (The nuts ... food and oil)	23
Misquoting:	
'We can use it for cooking, and also for producing things in factories'	24
'and also for producing things in factories'	5
Quoting third sentence ('ropes and mats ... coconut trees')	7
'We can use it for producing things'	4
Excessive quotation:	
'The nuts ... in different ways'	7
'The nuts ... things in factories'	8
No response	21
4. Correct answer 'making soap, toothpaste and paint'	5
'we can use it in cooking'	3
'we can use it for producing things in factories'	9
Misquotation:	
'we can use this oil in different ways'	29
'the nuts give us food and oil'	13
Excessive quotation:	
'The nuts give us ... in different ways'	14
'and oil We can ... in different ways'	3
'from coconut trees The nuts ... in different ways'	2
No Response:	21
5. Correct answer 'soap, toothpaste and paint'	12
Quoting penultimate sentence	
'We can use it in cooking ... in factories'	20

	<u>Frequency</u>
'cooking, and also for producing things	3
'cooking, and also for producing things in factories'	4
'and also for producing things in factories'	11
Misquoting:	
'We can use this oil in different ways'	7
'Ropes and mats ... coconut trees'	5
'The nuts give us food and oil'	5
'The nuts give us ... in different ways'	3
'You can see roofs which are made of their leaves'	4
No Response:	25
6. Serious attempt at explaining why coconut trees are useful, whether correct or not:	11
Quoting final sentence	
'For example, ... and paint'	19
'It can be used ... and paint'	6
'for making ... and paint'	3
Misquoting:	
'Ropes and mats ... coconut trees'	10
'We can use it in cooking, ... factories'	3
'We can use it in cooking, ... and paint'	5
'Coconut trees are very useful'	5
'Cocunut trees are very useful, and they grow in many tropical countries'	4
No Response:	33

APPENDIX 5 - The Translation Test

TRANSLATION TEST

1. Text - in English (given to students in Kannada, their mother tongue).

Translate the following passage into English:

We live in an old house. There is a small garden in front of the house. There are a lot of flowers in it. The red roses are more beautiful than the yellow ones. Yesterday, my uncle came from New Delhi. He gave me a beautiful watch. He will go to Madras tomorrow. He wants me to go with him. I haven't seen the sea. We'll go to the Marina Beach.

Notes:

The text was constructed to include a range of lexical and structural items that would reasonably be expected to be known at the beginning of the third year of English. It was constructed by an experienced teacher of pupils at this level.

It was then translated into Kannada by a native speaker of Kannada on the staff of Regional Institute of English, Bangalore, India.

The translation was then translated back into English by another native speaker of Kannada, also on the staff of R.I.E. Bangalore, but without collusion. This English translation was then compared with the original. There were no discrepancies.

The Kannada text was then cyclostyled, and administered to two classes. The resulting translation test scripts were then assessed by counting the occurrences of the 15 lexical and 15 structural items decided upon.

2. Results:

Frequencies of items assessed			
Vocabulary items	Frequency	Structural items	Frequency
live (v)	40	we live (pr. simple)	5
old	78	a/an (indef. article)	14/7
house	83	there is/are	3/0
garden (n)	53	in front of	31
small	55	a lot of	19
flowers (n)	66	it	1
red	72	are more ... than	1
roses	53	yesterday/tomorrow	44/33
yellow	58	came/gave(irreg. past)	7/13
beautiful	41	me/my	8/45
uncle	30	from/to	4/28
give	51	will go (future simple)	4
watch (n)	53	haven't/we'll (contractions)	1
see	30	have seen	0
beach	23	wants me to go	0
\bar{x}	52.4	(taking higher value where two)	13.93
σ	17.04		15.43
number in classes	46 + 42 = 88		
\bar{x} for students	8.93		2.54(1)
σ	3.14		1.43

- (1) this figure differs from that in the table above because where a student gave either (but not both) forms, he was given credit; but he was not given double credit if he gave both examples.

3. Two examples of scripts:

Example 1 - Vocabulary Score 11, Structure Score 6

We leiv in one hold house. House front of on small gornedn.
gornedn in some flowers. Yellow rose in red rose in beautiful.
Yestrday my uncli New deihi in come. Theve many gave in one
beautifull wichwaath. Theve to me or going to Maderas. Iower
vo the like in going I see not look. We Maren beare going.

Example 2 - Vocabulary Score 11, Structure Score 2

We one hold house lived house went one small garden whole flower
red rose flower yellow rose flower buetful esterday my mava New
delhi come ower my one buetful hands watch give aver towore Madras
going my ower sangada gaing tow my River it dontno we Marina
bihige gaing.

Ap.66.

APPENDIX 6 - Transcript 1

Teacher - Donald Vincent Cardoz

Date: 12th July, 1979

Teaching items: 'should', plus four content words - 'speciality',
variety', 'stretch', 'patch'

Pupils: Std. IX girls (Kannada Medium), Malleswaram Govt. Girls'
High School, Bangalore, India.

Teacher: Good morning girls

Pupils: Good morning, sir.

T. : No, don't open your books. Keep your bags down.

5 What did you do when I came into the class? What did
you do? Were you sitting down or did you stand up?

P (one) : stand up

T : Come on, tell me

P (chorus): stand up

10 T : So you stood up. Why did you do that? Why did
you stand up?

P. : Good morning

15 T. : Yes, you said good morning. Why did you do that?
Is it because you like me? (pause - 3s) Because you
respect your teachers. Now look at the board
(writing). You ... should ... respect ... your
teachers. That's why you said good morning. It's
a mark of respect. You should respect your teachers.
See now, I'll teach you for twenty minutes, then
another teacher will come you should listen to
20 me. Don't look outside. You should listen to me;
listen to your teacher. Now look at the board
(writing) You ... should ... listen to ... your ...
teacher. And if you don't understand, you should ask
him. You should ...

25 P (one) : ask him
T : ask him. You can ask me any doubt. If you
don't understand, you should ask me. All
right? All right? Understand? You should
ask me.

30 Now look at these two sentences: 'You should
respect your teacher ... You should listen to
your teacher' You should ask your teacher.
Now there are so many people living close by
your house. What are they called? They're
35 your ... (pause - 2s) neighbours. Those
who live next to your house. There'll be some
poor people, some rich people - so many
people live close by to your house. You should
love your neighbours. You should love your
40 ... (pause - 3s) ... you should love your.....

P(one) :Neighbours
T :Come on, tell me this word
P (several) :neighbours
T :You should love your

45 P (all) :neighbours
T :Or we can say 'we should love our neighbours'
... we should ... (pause - 3s) ... we should
love our neighbours. There are so many poor
people living in this city, living near your
50 house. Sometimes they will come and ask you,
'give me ten paise for a cup of coffee'. You
should help the poor. You should help the....

P (all) :poor
T :poor people. Sometimes they will come and ask
55 you, 'give me ten paise', you should help the
poor. You should help the poor people.
'Poor' means 'poor people'. (writing) We...

- should ... help ... the ... poor people. Now look at this sentence. We should help the poor people. They don't have money to buy rice or anything, so we should give them money. We should help the poor people. Can you tell me which is your nation? (pause - 2s) Do you belong to England?
- 60
- 65 P (several): No
- T : Then you belong to Japan, belong to Australia? Which is your nation? Which is your motherland? Come on, tell me which is your nation.
- P (one): India
- 70 T : India! Come on, tell me.
- P (all): India
- T : India is my nation - India is our nation. We should love ... we should love our motherland. We should love our
- 75 P (most):motherland
- T :motherland. We should love our motherland. We should love ... which is our motherland? India. We should love India. You should listen to me. You should listen to me. You should not look out.
- 80 You see, the postman came; you should not look at him; you should look at me. You should not ... look outside. The postman came ... she was looking at him ... don't look out ... you should not look outside. You should listen to me. You
- 85 should look at me ... we should love our motherland. ... we should love India - and you should not look outside.
- Now. What's your name? (pointing)
- P (one): Pramila
- 90 T : Pramila (pointing) What's your name?
- P (one): Neela

- T : Suppose you are sick headache, fever...,
what should you do if you are sick? Come on,
tell me ... Pramila ... will you go to school
95 if you are sick? If you have fever ... eh?...
- P : yes
- T : you will go to school? Won't you go to the
hospital? ... to see the doctor? ... yes?
Come on ...
- 100 P : Yes
- T : sit down ... so ... what should you do if you
are sick? ... What should you do if you are sick?
I should, say ...
- P (one) : I should go to the hospital ...
- 105 T : Come on, speak loudly ... you should speak loudly
... you should speak loudly ... come on ...
- P (one) : I am going ...
- T : You should
- P (same) : You should
- 110 T : I should ... what should you do if you are sick?
... come on ...
- P (same) : I should go to the hospital
- T : I should go to the hospital ... sit down.
See, if you want an inland to write an inland
115 letter, what should you do? ... what should you do?
come on, give me the answer ... what should you do?
Where do you get the inland? Where do you get
the inland?
- P (one) : inland letter
- 120 T : No, where do you get an inland?
- P : Post Office
- T : So what should you do if you want an inland letter?
say, 'I should'
- P (all) : I should ...
- 125 T : go

P (all) : go to the post office
T : What should you do?
P (all) : I should go to the post office
T : right. I should go to the post office ... I
130 should go to the ...
P (all) : post office.
T : see ... your name is Pramila ... see, she
is very much interested in story books. She's
very much interested in reading ... story books.
135 She wants to have a story book ... and you have
a library in your school - don't you have a
library?
P (one) : yes sir
T : So what should Pramila do to get a story book?
140 What should Pramila do to get a story book?
Come on, can you give me the answer?
P(once) : She ...
T : Pramila ... she ... she should ...
P : She should ...
145 T : She should ...
P : She should ...
T : go
P : go
T : to the
150 P : to the library.
T : She should go to the library. She should go to
the ...
P (all) : library.
T : Come on, sit down ... Now, I'll write a few
155 sentences here. Now you should look at the
blackboard. You should look at the blackboard
... you should not look outside. (writes:
John do the homework
I take a bath daily

160

should

He wear clean clothes

They come to the class on time)

...Can you give me a few sentences? I'll give you one ...' John should do the homework' ... John

165

should do the homework ... can you give me another sentence? ... Come on ...

P (one):I should ... I should come to the class on time ...

T :on time, very good ... can you give me another sentence? (points to another child) ...

170 P (one):He should take ... take a bath day...

T :he should take a bath daily ... daily ... give me another sentence ... (pointing to another girl)

P (one):They wear clean

T :they

175 P :they wear should ...

T :they

P :they should wear ...

T :they should ...

P :They should wear ... clean ...

180 T :... clean clothes ... they should wear clean ... (pause - 2s)

P :clothes

T :they should wear clean clothes ... give me another sentence ...

185 P(one) :John should do the homework.

T :John should do the homework ... John should do the ... (pause - 2s) ...can you tell me how many sentences you can give me from this table? See, I'll give you ...'John should do the homework, John should take a bath daily, John should wear clean clothes, John should come to the class on time'
like that, how many sentences can you give?

190

P :four

195 T : four ...four ... four (demonstrating on the
blackboard) how many sentences can you give?

P (one): sixteen, sir

T : sixteen. How many sentences?

P (all): sixteen

200 T : sixteen sentences you can give me ... Give
me another sentence ... use your brain ...

P (one): they

T : they

P : they should

T : they should

205 P : They should do the ...

T : They should do the homework ... ok, sit down.
See, you know, all of you should listen to me,
see - I stay here, you know this place,
Vasanthanagar ... this place is called

210 Vasanthanagar ... see, my mother is staying with
me, and my sister is there ... another brother is
there ... see, my sister cooks food. My mother
also cooks food. But there's a speciality in
my mother's cooking. My mother cooks very well.

215 She can make very good curries ... See, this is
a teacher from Kerala (pointing) ... she can sing.
She can dance. Dancing and singing are her
specialities. She can dance. She can sing.
Dancing and singing are her specialities. Her

220 name is Sheela. Sheela can dance. Sheela can
sing. So singing and dancing are her special-
ities.

225 See. Yesterday I went to one big hotel. Ashoka
- or Caveri - one big hotel. I asked for rice and
curry. They gave me biriani. They said they have
only biriani. It was very fine. Biriani was their
speciality. See, I am a teacher. I teach
English only. Teaching English is my speciality.

- Dancing and singing is her speciality.
- 230 Teaching English is my ...
- P : speciality
- T : speciality. Now, have you all gone to Lalbagh? What can you see there?
- P : flowers
- 235 T : flowers, many trees. You can see all kinds of flowers. Different kinds. You can see a variety of flowers (writes) ... a ... variety ... of ... flowers. Different kinds. Different kinds of flowers. A variety. See,
- 240 if you go to the zoo, Mysore zoo, what can you see there? A variety of animals. Different kinds of ... different kinds of ...
- P : animals
- T : animals ... a variety of animals
- 245 P (all): a variety of animals
- T : a variety of ...
- P (all): animals
- T : animals ... what can you see in the zoo? A variety of ...
- 250 P : animals
- T : what can you see in Lalbagh? A variety of ... a variety of ...
- P (one): flowers
- T : flowers
- 255 P : flowers
- T : correct. You can see a variety of ...
- P : flowers.
- T : What can you see in a zoo?
- F : animals
- 260 T : animals
- P : a variety of animals
- T : different kinds. Now see, look at my shirt. What can you see?

- P (one) : a variety of colours.
- 265 T : A variety of colours! Good. Very good.
A variety of ...
- P (all) : colours.
- T : I can see patches of different colours ...
(writes) patches of ... different ...
- 270 P : colours
- T : ... very good. See, I'll show you some
leaves. What are these? leaves ...
- P : Leaves
- T : see, different colours ... different ...
- 275 P : colours
- T : see, green, yellow, like that. Just like my
shirt. So, a variety of colours. Patches of
different colours. See. Look here. Here
you find grass, next place, grass. Patches of
grass. Patches of ...
- 280 P : grass
- T : patches of different colours ... patches of
different ...
- P : colours
- 285 T : patches of colours. A variety of colours.
Now. What can you see if you go to the
seashore? Seashore have you been to? Have
you gone to Beach? Beach? What can you see
there? (shows picture) This is not exactly
a beach, I don't think (picture is of a lake)
What can you see there?
- 290 P : water
- T : water. A wide area of water. A wide area of...
- P : water
- 295 T : see, plenty of space covered with ...
- P : water
- T : see, I'll show you one more picture. See,
what's all this?

P : water

300 T : water ... a wide area covered with water.
I can say 'stretch of water'. Stretch of ...

P : water

T : stretch of ...

P : water

305 T : water. Now, stretch of water. Stretch of ...

P : water.

T : Now I'll show you something else. (shows a rubber band) What is this?

P (one) : balloon

310 T : no no no, this is not a balloon. What is this?

P : rubber band.

T : see, she has got a rubber band. She has tied her hair. This is also a ...

P : rubber band

315 T : What will happen if I pull it? It will ...

P : undecipherable

T : It will stretch - that's the word. It will ...

P : stretch

T : (writes) it will ...

320 P : stretch

T : (demonstrates) see, stretching? Now what will happen if I blow air into this balloon. It will become ... it will become ... big. Don't you know that? 'Stretch' is becoming (stretches rubber band) ... becoming ... big ... becoming ...

325 P : big

T : Becoming big. Stretches. That's the word. Now look at these words. Specialities ... specialities ... say the word ...

330 P : specialities

T : right ... a variety of flowers ...

P : a variety of flowers

T : patches of different colours
P : patches of different colours
535 T : stretch
P : stretch
T : stretches of water
P : stretches of water
T : stretch of water
340 P : stretch of water
T : stretch of ...
P : water
T : what is this? I told you ... look at my
shirt ...
345 P : a variety of colours
T : then? Use another word ...
P : (confused) variety of colours/patches of
different colours
T : red ... white ... green ...
350 P : yellow
T : yes, yellow ... patches of ...
P : different colours
T : different colours ... patches of different
colours ... a variety of
355 flowers ... speciality
(gets girls to read words off board until
end of lesson)

APPENDIX 7 - Transcript 2

Teacher: Mr Neelakantan Nair

Date: 12th July 1979

Teaching items: 'ought to', plus two content words,
'thatched' and 'tethered'

Pupils Std. IX, G.G.H.S.S., Malleswaram, Bangalore, India.

- T : Listen, don't you see that plant there? Don't
you see a plant there? Here ... Is that a
growing plant? ... Is it a growing plant?
- P : Yes
- 5 T : No. It is not a growing ...
- P : plant
- T : Something is wrong with it. Something is
wrong with that ...
- P : plant
- 10 T : Yes. What's wrong? ... It is ... dying.
It is ...
- P : dying.
- T : Why? Yesterday - last few days - there was
much heat. There was much ...
- 15 P : heat.
- T : ... and light. And it is a newly planted ...
plant. Right. A newly ...
- P : planted ...
- T : plant. It is a newly ...
- 20 P : planted ...
- T : one. Somebody ought to (emphasis on 'ought to')
water the plant every day. Every day somebody
ought to water that plant. Somebody ... ought ...
to ... water that ...
- 25 P : plant
- T : Somebody, every day, ought to water that ...
plant. He might have forgotten to do that job.
He might have ... forgotten. So it has died. So.

- 30 Suppose you plant a flower plant in your house.
What ought you to do? You ... ought to water
the plant. You ...
- P : ought
T : ought to
P : water
- 35 T : water the
P : plant
T : plant. Every day. You ought to water the
plant every day. Otherwise it will die like
this. The plant will ...
- 40 P : die
T : die like this. Understand?
Now you are ah girls from ... Malleswaram.
Malleswaram Girls High School. You are quite
happy there. You are quite ...
- 45 P : happy there.
T : happy there. Your classrooms are very
beautiful. Your classrooms are ...
P : very beautiful.
T : What do you say about your classroom? Is it
- 50 beautiful? What do you say about your
classroom? Is it ... beautiful? What do you
say? ... say something ...
- P : Y es
T : It is very beautiful. Why? Why do you say it
is beautiful? Because ... there is ... air.
There is ...
- 55 P : air.
T : You get a lot of fresh air in your classroom.
You get ...
- 60 P : a lot
T : a lot of
P : fresh

T : fresh

P : air

65 T : air. You get a lot of ...

P : fresh air.

T : Your classrooms are not having good ventilators or windows. You won't get a lot of fresh air in your classroom. So.

70 Every classroom ought to be like this (gestures at open side of palm leaf hut in which class is taking place) You say; every

P : Every

75 T : classroom

P : classroom ... ought

T : should be ... like this. You get a lot of air, fresh air. To breathe. You can see the plants, you can see the trees. You can

80 see the people going about. So. Every classroom ought to be ... ought to be ... the classrooms ... like RIE ... the classrooms in

P : RIE ...

T : the classrooms in ...

85 P : RIE

T : So, see, don't you see something there? Light is coming in. Light is ...

P : coming in

T : coming in. Why? Why the light is coming in?

90 ... Please tell me do ... Why the light is coming in? ... What about your classroom? Is light coming in your classroom?

P : No sir

T : No, why is it so here? Light is coming in.

95 Sometimes rainwater, also comes in. What happens you see? Rainwater also ...

P : coming in

T : comes in. So this classroom is having a roof
of this type; not good roofs; not good roof.
100 This roof cannot be said to be ...

P : good.

T : It is bad. It is really bad. Of course you
get the air. But we get rain water also. We
get rainwater ...

105 P : also.

T : too. It ought to be thatched well. It ought
to be ... thatched well. Understand? This
classroom ... ought to be ... thatched well.
Ought to be thatched ...

110 P : well.

T : well. They ought to have thatched it well.
They ought to have ... thatched the classroom
well. Understand? So I'll give you some more
examples. Now see ... you are ... you love your
115 father, your mother - you love your parents. We
love our ...

P : parents.

T : Do you obey your parents? Suppose your mother
says, please go to the shop and bring half a kilo
120 of jaggery, rice, coconut oil, groundnut oil,
something, do you go to the shop and get it for
your mother?

P : yes.

T : Yes. We ought to obey our ...

125 P : parents.

T : What do you say?

P : ought

T : We

P : ought

130 T : ought to obey our ...

P : parents.

T : We ought to obey our ...

P : parents.

135 T : Suppose my father asks me, dear son, go and
bring something ... for cooking. I ought to
obey my father. I ... ought to obey my ...

P : father.

T : Suppose ... Pakistan ... or China ... attacks
our country. Attacks our ...

140 P : country

T : Prime Minister of India Mr. Morarji Desai asks
us to contribute - or give - some money, some
ornaments, something for the ... country. We
have to fight our enemy. We have to fight our
145 ... enemy.

T : What should you do? What should you do? We
ought to help our country. We ...

P : ought

T : ought to help our ...

150 P : country.

T : We ought to help our country. We love our
country. We ...

P : love our ...

T : love our ...

155 P : country.

T : We should love our country. We must love our
country. We ought to love our ...

P : country.

T : What would you do then? You would give your
160 money, you would even give ornaments. Under-
stand? So we..ought ... now say

P (all) : We ... ought ... to ... love ... our country.

T : Again, suppose your house, your house is your
house. You must see that it's very clean.
165 It is very ...

P : clean.

Ap.82.

- T : Say it - use 'ought to'. We ... say ...
- P : ought ... to keep our house ... clean ...
- T : say it once again.
- 170 P (all) : We ... ought ... to ... keep our house ...
clean ...
- T : There are people who never study their lessons.
Is it correct? Is that correct? ... There are
boys and girls I know who never study their
175 lessons. Is it correct?
- P : Yes.
- T : Is it a right thing? No ... say ...
- P : No sir.
- T : We ... say ...
- 180 P : ... We ... (confusion) ... ought to ...
- T : We ought to learn our lessons ... come on,
again ...
- P (all) : We ought to learn our lessons.
- T : Suppose a homework is given to you. Your
185 teacher gives you some homework, arithmetic,
something, understand?
- P : We ought to do ... your ...
- T : no, no, no. Not 'your'. Suppose I am the
pupil, and the teacher is somebody else, I ought
190 to do my (emphasis) homework. I ought to do my
homework. Suppose you are pupils then you say
...
- P : we ought to do ... my ...
- T : No, not 'my'. say 'our'.
- 195 P : ... our ... homework.
- T : Again, suppose elderly people, your grandfather,
say, visits your house. Your grandfather, an
elderly man, visits your house. Your grand-
father, your father's - understand?
- 200 P : Yes sir.
- T : Now you are sitting somewhere in a chair, reading

T : a newspaper, suppose an elderly man, a grown-up man, an old man, comes in. What ought you to do? You ...

205 P : We ...

T : We ought ...

P : ought to ...

T : respect our elders ... say ...

P : We ought to respect our elders.

210 T : ... are you hungry? No? Are you hungry?...

P : No sir.

T : No. I am quite hungry. Because I had three puris only in the morning and a cup of tea. So I am very ... hungry. I ought to eat my dinner at least before one-thirty. I ought to eat my dinner - say - you ought to eat your dinner (encouraging)

215 P : ... ought to eat my ... your dinner at two ...

T : before one o'clock before one say ...

220 P : one o'clock.

T : My friend is in Madras. My friend is in ...

P : Madras.

T : He has asked me to go to Madras. There are beautiful places in Madras. There are beautiful places in ...

225 P : Madras.

T : I must go because he is my friend. I ought to go because he is my ...

P : friend.

230 T : I ought to go say ...

P : I ought to go to Madras ...

T : You, say ...

P : we ...

T : you ...

235 P : You ought to go to Madras ...

Ap.84.

- T :next week say ...
- P :next week.
- T :Now look at the blackboard (where he has written the sentences he has been producing).
- 240 I'm going to remove this 'we' and put 'I'.
Say ...
- P (read) :I ought to obey my parents
- T :(goes around class, picking pupils) Now you,
- P (reads) :I ought to love my country
- 245 T :(repeats with this sentence six times) Now you. Next sentence.
- P :I ought to keep my house clean
- T :(repeats with this sentence four times) Now the next (pointing)
- 250 P :I ought to learn my lesson.
- T :(Repeats with this sentence four times). Now the next. You. (pointing)
- P :I ought to respect my parents.
- T :(repeats with this sentence twice.) Suppose
- 255 I use the word 'he'. You are talking about your friend, or your brother, a mischievous friend or a mischievous brother. Say, some of you, come on (points to sentence 'I ought to obey my parents')
- 260 P :He ought to obey his parents.
- T :another, say. (pointing to another pupil)
- P :He ought to obey my ...
- T :His ... He ought to obey his parents.
- P (same) :I ought to obey ... he ought to obey his parents.
- 265 T :(pointing to another pupil) Say the sentence - or another one:
- P :He ought to love my country.
- T :His country. He must be a patriot. He must be a ...
- 270 P :Patriot.
- T :He ought to obey - love - his country. He ought to love his ...

P : country.

T : (pointing to another pupil) another.

275 P : He ought to ...

T : He ought to ...

P : learn ...

T : learn his lessons. He ought to learn his lessons. He's a lazy boy. He ought to

280 learn his lessons. Sit down. Now suppose I am using the word 'she' here. (pointing to a pupil) One sentence, you say, using 'she'.

P : She ought to ...

T : She ought to respect

285 P : respect his ... elders.

T : her. She ought to respect her (emphasis) elders ... say it ...

P : ... her elders.

T : Whole sentence; say it ...

290 P : She ought ... she ought to ... respect her elders.

T : (pointing to another pupil) Another sentence ...

P : She ought ... to eat ... her dinner.

T : ... because ... she's hungry. (points to

295 another pupil)

P : She ought to keep our house clean.

T : Suppose I use the word 'they' - one sentence -

P : They ought to learn our lessons.

T : Their ... they ought to learn their lessons

300 (points) ... another sentence ...

P : They ought to keep our ... they ought to keep ... they ought to keep ... they ... houses clean.

T : They ought to keep their houses clean - That's all right. That's enough. Now I'm going to tell

305 something else. Again about this. Don't you see a ... building there?

- P : Yes sir.
- T : Do you see the roof of that building?
- P : Yes sir.
- 310 T : The roof. Do you see a building somewhere there? With a red roof?
- Yes. Another kind of building there.
- Another kind of building do you see? What's the difference between the roof of that
- 315 building and the roof of this building here? This is the roof of this building (points to thatch) and there is another building with another kind of roof. What's the difference?
- P : (gives Kannada word)
- 320 T : (replies in Malayalam that he doesn't know Kannada)
- P : (gives explanation in Kannada)
- T : (pointing to roof of hut) So we see a thatched roof. This is a ... thatched
- 325 building. The roof of this building is ... thatched. What is that?
- P : Thatched
- T : thatched. The roof of this building is ...
- P : thatched.
- 330 T : thatched. My house is in Kerala. My parents are very poor. My parents are very ...
- P : poor.
- T : You know Kerala. Kerala is the land of ... coconut trees. Kerala is a land of ...
- 335 P : coconut trees.
- T : My parents are very poor as I told you ... are very poor so I have... I live in a thatched house. I live in a ...
- P : thatched house.
- 340 T : I live in a ...

- P : thatched house.
- T : You understand? What are the things you use to
thatch your houses? What are the things you
use in Karnataka state? Do you always use this
345 thing,
- P : thatch
- T : the ... leaves of coconut palm? Can you use
that plant, the leaves of that plant to thatch
our building? Sometimes we use, palmyras, we
350 can use. We use that one, sometimes we use
straw; straw. What is that? Straw?
- P : (Gives Kannada word)
- T : We can use hullu, leaves, or straw to thatch.
This is a thatched building, so what are you see?
355 Sometimes water comes in, sometimes water ...
- P : comes in ...
- T : because it is thatched building. That (pointing)
is an asbestos roof. That is an asbestos ...
roof. This is a thatched building. Under-
360 stand? Now again, in the morning I have
breakfast at six. Here. We get very early our
morning coffee. After that, I am fond of
walking. I am very fond of ...
- P : walking.
- 365 T : I walk round here, seeing the flowers, seeing the
beautiful plants. Understand? Sometimes I see
water drops ... water ...
- P : drops
- T : on the grass. Water drops on the ...
- 370 P : grass.
- T : very beautiful to look at. Very beautiful to ...
- P : look at.
- T : Why? They glisten. They ...
- P : glisten. Because water drops ...

- 375 T : Because water drops ...
P (one) : glisten.
T : glisten. The early light of the sun pours ...
the early rays of the sun, the early red rays
of the sun ... colourful rays of the sun falls
380 on the dew drops. Falls on the dew drops.
Dew. Hema. Manu. What is it?
P : Umanju
T : Those rays falls and those beautiful water
drops glisten. Those beautiful water drops...
385 P : glisten
T : glisten. Understand? You know, one day I had
been to Mysore Brindavan Gardens. Look Kaveri
River there. Kannambadi Dam there, So my god
it was a beautiful sight. I was there in the
390 night, it was a beautiful night, with full moon.
Understand? That beautiful lake, Kannambadi
Dam there was glistening in the moonlight. It
was ...
P : glistening
395 T : in moonlight. That dam was ... that Kaveri was
... glistening. You understand the word
'glistening'? Now you see what is this? What
is it? ... It is a cow, say ...
P : Cow.
400 T : a cow. Now the cow is tethered with a rope.
It is ... tethered. It is ...
P : tethered.
T : Tethered with a rope. It is ...
P : tethered.
405 T : Now suppose there is a dog in your house, suppose
there is a ... dog. Suppose there is a
mischievous dog, a mischievous ... dog. It
bites at everybody who comes to the house. What

will you do? You ought to tether it. You
 410 ought to ...
 P :tether
 T :tether it. A chain, a belt, a rope, some-
 thing. You ought to tether your ...
 415 mischievous dog ... with a rope or belt. You
 ought to. Suppose you won't do it, somebody is
 bitten, a policeman will come with a complaint
 ... you ought to have ... tethered your dog,
 He may say 'you ought to have tethered your ...
 P :dog.'
 420 T :You'll be taken to the police station, you will
 be arrested, because you ought to have tethered
 your dog. Understand? You understand meaning?
 You ought to have tethered your ...
 P :dog.
 425 T :Now suppose there is a cow, a mischievous cow
 again. She jumps into the garden of a neighbour.
 She eats every vegetable growing there. What
 would the neighbour say? You ought to have
 tethered your ...
 430 P :cow ... dog ... cow ...
 T :You ought to have tethered your cow. Understand?
 Now I want to see something else also. See, I
 brought all these things just to show you. Why?
 These are very - I ought to be very careful
 435 because these things are poisonous they say. I
 ought to be very careful. Something will come out.
 P :milk
 T :Is it milk? Can you use it to prepare tea or
 coffee? Can you prepare this milk to prepare
 440 coffee or something? You ought to be very careful
 in dealing with it. Because they say it is
 poisonous. The sap. What is this?
 P :Sap.

- 445 T : The sap comes out. The sap of the plant.
The sap of the ...
- P : plant.
- T : It looks like milk, but it is not milk, it is called ...
- P : Sap.
- 450 T : Sap. Again, you take this. It is medicine. Suppose you have a headache or something, you put it somewhere, apply it, on your head. Forehead would be alright. The sap. This is what they call it. Don't taste it. It's a medicine of course; you can't taste it; it's bitter of course. It's not dangerous, not dangerous. It's called 'the sap'. Don't forget this word. The sap ... the sap ... s-a-p sap. sap.
- 455
- 460 P : sap.
- T : You please fill up the blanks here, you read it (pointing)
- P (one) : one day our teacher ... took us ... on a ...
- T : hm, read, read ... you come on (pointing)
- 465 P(two) : one day our teacher took us on ... on a ... tour to Brindavan Gardens ... near ... near Mysore ... Mysore it is a ...
- T : near Mysore. Stop there.
- P : (continues) it is a ... beautiful garden ...
- 470 T : full of flowers
- P : (simultaneously) full of flowers ... the friend...
- T : the fountains and the lake
- P : (confused indecipherable)
- T : glisten
- 475 P : glisten
- T : day and night
- P : day ...

T : and night. That's enough. Next (pointing)

P (three) : (silence)

480 T : There is ...

P : There is a ... lake near the ... garden ...
the poor villagers live a ... in ... that ...

T : thatched huts ... The poor villagers live in
... thatched huts ...

485 P : thatched huts.

T : Their cows ...

P : (two at once) Their cows ...

T : are ... (pause) ... yes, come along. Their
cows are ...

490 P : (one only) their cows are ...

T : tethered

P : tethered ... tethered with ... long ropes ...
ropes ... They were ... were ... were ...

T : Their cows - no 'are' - their cows tethered
495 with long ropes were grazing. They were ...

P : grazing

T : grazing in the grassy ... plant. Next one ...
next one ... please (points).

P (five) : (indecipherable)

500 T : The villagers ...

P : The villagers ...

T : drink ...

P : drink ...

T : the sap ... of ... sugarcane ... you know
505 sugarcane?

P : (gives Kannada equivalent)

T : That's right, they drink the sap of the sugar-
cane when they are thirsty and tired.

APPENDIX 8 - Transcript 3

Teacher: Mrs. K.J. Vijayalakshmi

Date: 8th September, 1979

Teaching: Detailed text

Pupils: Std. IX at G.G.H.S., Malleswaram, Bangalore, India

- Teacher : Do you like stories?
- Pupils : (in chorus) Yes, miss.
- T : Shall I tell you a story today?
- P (all) : Yes, miss.
- 5 T : See, it's a real one ... One day, I was going
to my school ...
- P : Where, miss?
- T : In my city, Madras ...
- P : Oh.
- 10 T : I was going to my school ... on the way, I saw a
holy man. Have you seen holy men?
- P (all) : yes, miss.
- T : Shall I draw a sketch of the holy man on the
board? (draws) ... does he look like a holy man?
- 15 P : juttu
- T : This holy man said that he was hungry ... are you
hungry now?
- P (all) : (confused) yes miss ... no miss ...
- T : Have you taken your lunch?
- 20 P (most) : No Miss.
- T : (curious) Have you taken your lunch?
- P : (mixed) Yes ... No ...
- T : (indecipherable), afternoon, in the morning we
take breakfast. Have you had your breakfast?
- 25 P (all) : Yes, miss.
- T : So you are not hungry now?
- P : No miss
- T : You aren't hungry ... but this holy man said he
was hungry ... a lady gave him some eatables.
- 30 Do you know what eatables are?

35 P : food miss.
T : Eatables are things that can be eaten ...
so a lady gave him some eatables ... during
the course of the week, I saw the holy man
wandering along the streets. What was he
doing?

P : wandering ... wandering along ... wandering
along the streets ...

40 T : wandering along the streets ... with a gunny
bag in his hand ... have you seen a gunny bag?

P : (various) ... juttu

T : have you seen?

P : Yes miss.

45 T : Where have you seen? (pause of 6 seconds) ...
where have you seen a gunny bag? ... (confused
cries - undecipherable) ... where have you seen?
... (pause - 5 s) ...

P (one) : Holy man seen

50 T : Oh, holy men carry gunny bags ... have you seen
in shops? ... merchants keep ... rice, dhal, etc.
in gunny bags ... and I heard people say that he
was not really a holy man, but a thief... and
they agreed among themselves to catch hold of this
holy man and hand him over to the police. So one

55 day they hid themselves in a street corner and
waited patiently for the man to come. And when
he came, suddenly they caught hold of him and
handed him over to the police. Then he was taken
to the Panchayat Hall. You know what a

60 Panchayat is?

P : Patel

T : Where do you find a Panchayat?

P (many) : Village

65 T : In villages, the Panchayat gives justice ...
so this man was taken to the Panchayat Hall.
There, he was shown to be guilty of many thefts.
Do you like this story?

P (all) : yes miss.

T : Is it interesting?

70 P (all) : yes miss

T : Shall we now go on to our story of the cunning
man? (pause - 2s) ... You read part of the
story yesterday, didn't you?

P (one) : Yes, miss.

75 T : Do you remember the story? ... Do you remember?

P : (various) ... yes ... no ...

T : Yesterday you read part of the story of the
cunning man.

P : Yes miss.

80 T : Do you remember it or not? The story of the
cunning man ...

P (various): yes miss.

T : Yes. Now you remember ... Shall I ask you a
few questions? Look at these sketches. Look at

85 sketch one. Who is this?

P : (various confused; most say 'Gundappa' - correct
answer)

T : And who is this?

P (one) : Gundappa father

90 T : Now, from the drawing, what did Gundappa's
father ask him to do?

P : (reads from text next to drawing) Gundappa's
father asked him to go ... somewhere ... else and
earn his living.

95 T : earn his living ... Gundappa's father asked him
to go somewhere else and earn his living. Look
at Sketch two ... What is this?

- P (various) : Master ... Gundappa ... school ...
- T : This is a school. Who is the teacher?
- 100 P (various) : Master ... Gundappa
- T : Now, will you stand up and answer my question? What did Gundappa do to earn his living?
- P : (same girl as on previous occasion reads text from board) Gundappa opened a school to earn his living.
- 105 T : Good. Gundappa opened a school to earn his living. Repeat the word 'earn'.
- P (all) : earn
- 110 T : Good. Look at sketch three. Who is this?
- P (several) : Patel
- T : It is a family name, so 'the Patel'.
- P (various) : Patel ... the Patel ...
- T : and who is this?
- 115 P (all) : Gundappa
- T : Will you stand up and answer my question? Why did the Patel call Gundappa an ass?
- F (reads) : The Patel called Gundappa an ass because he did not know how to read and write ... (fails at this point)
- 120 T : Did Gundappa know how to read and write?
- P : No miss
- T : But he still worked as a teacher. He was not very intelligent, but he was cunning. He was not intelligent. He did not know how to read and write; but he worked as a teacher. He was not even clever. He was a cunning man, he pretended to know how to read and write. He did not know how to read and write. The
- 125 Patel called Gundappa an ass because although he did not know how to read and write, he still worked as a teacher. Now ... you stand up (pointing one P). Look at sketch four.
- 130

Ap.96.

What is Gundappa doing?

135 P : (not the girl standing up) carrying a bag
(pupil standing up then repeats it)

T : Carrying a bag.

P (reads) : He left the village carrying a bag

T : So what is he doing?

140 P : He left the village ...

T : What is he doing? Your sentence is, 'He
left the village carrying a bag'. I want
you to give it in your own words.

P : He going the village

145 T : He is going to the village ... He is
leaving the village ... He is ...

P : leaving the village

T : And so. Now you give the answer. Why did
Gundappa leave the village?

150 P : (same pupil as answered qns. 1 and 2)
Gundappa left the village because all the
villagers were angry with him.

T : Yes, Gundappa left the village because all the
villagers were angry with him. Now look at
155 sketch five.

P : Temple

T : Yes. What is this?

P : Gundappa ... temple

T : And Gundappa is sitting in the temple. Where
160 did he go?

P : (reads) Gundappa went to a temple where

T : (cutting her off) Yes. Next one. What did
the people who came to the temple do?

P : People put some eatables in front of him.

165 T : Yes. People who came to the temple put some
eatables in front of him. So now do you
remember the story?

P : Yes miss.

T : Shall we go on to the next part of the story to-
170 day?

- P : Yes miss.
- T : Open your book to page 29. Last paragraph.
Now I shall read the first two paragraphs.
Listen carefully. (teacher reads up to
175 'Taking revenge on the Patel', Then says:)
Now read the rest of the story silently. I'll
write some questions on the board. When you
read, see that you are able to find answers
to these questions ... slowly ... without
180 moving your lips. (most girls - about 75% -
appear to be engaged in the task. Then
teacher says:) Please stop reading. Look
at the questions on the board ... How did
Gundappa satisfy his hunger on the day of his
185 leaving Shivalli? What was Ranga's request
to Gundappa? What did Gundappa say to
Ranga when he came to him after a week? What
was the Patel doing when Ranga saw him?
What did Ranga do to attract the Patel's
190 attention? ... Were you able to find the
answers from the story?
- P : Yes miss
- T : Now look at the pictures. Are you able to see
them? ... (pause - 4s) are you able to see the
195 pictures? ... (pause - 3s) ... Look at
picture one. Who is this?
- P : (various) Gundappa ... holy man ...
- T : Yes, in our story, who is the holy man?
- P (one) : Gundappa
- 200 T : So this is ... (pause - 3s) ... Gundappa.
Are his eyes open or closed?
- P (one) : Closed, miss.
- T : They are closed. Did he open his eyes later?
- P : Yes miss
- 205 T : Yes. He opened his eyes later. Why did
he open his eyes?
- P : Because he was very hungry.

Ap.98.

- T : He was very hungry. When he opened his eyes later, all right ... what did he see in front of him when he opened his eyes?
- 210 P (all) : eatables
- T : Yes, he saw eatables in front of him when he opened his eyes. How did the villagers treat him?
- 215 P (one) : Holy man ...
- T : Yes, they treated him as a holy man ...
- P : Respected him
- T : Yes, they respected him. Did he need money? Was he in need of money?
- 220 P : No miss.
- T : No? Gundappa in need of money?
- P : Yes miss.
- T : Yes, he wanted money. Why did he want money?
- P : He wanted money for cinema and hotels
- 225 T : Yes. He liked to live in cities
- P : Wandering
- T : Wandering about?
- P : going to hotels and cinemas
- T : Very good. And he wanted money to take revenge on the Patel. Does it say that in your book?
- 230 P : Yes miss
- T : How did he want to take revenge on the Patel? How did he want to take revenge on the Patel?
- P : (various indecipherable) ... Patel of Shivalli...
- 235 T : Now listen carefully to my question. The Patel called him an ass. Do you remember?
- P : Yes
- T : Listen to my question properly and then find the answer. Understand my question first and then answer. The Patel called him an ass. Did he? ... (pause - 5s) ... did he? ... Did he or not? ... (pause - 4s) ... did he call him an ass?
- 240

Ap.99.

P : Yes miss

245 T : Yes. Gundappa wanted to take revenge on
the Patel. Did he want to take revenge on
the Patel?

P : Yes miss.

T : How did he want to take revenge on the
Patel?

250 P : (various confused) ... he waited patiently ...

T : yes, he waited patiently ...

P : (various confused) ... he wanted to take
revenge on the Patel by earning some money ...

255 T : Yes, there you are. He wanted to take
revenge on the Patel by earning some money.
That's good. Can an ass earn money?

P : No.

T : The Patel had called him an ass ... so he
wanted to take revenge on the Patel by
260 earning some money. Now look at picture two.
Who is this?

P (all) : Gundappa

T : This is Gundappa. And who is this?

P (all) : Ranga.

265 T : That's Ranga. And what is this?

P (many) : ass ... horse ...

T : Look in your book. Is it an ass or a horse?

P : (confusion; not least because it is a local
peculiarity to say 'hass')

270 T : say, one of you

P (many) : hass

T : ass

P (many) : ass

T : so it is an ass. What did Ranga request
275 Gundappa to do?

P : (various confused; one pupil reading from the
text: "He said to himself, ...

T : That's what Gundappa said to himself. My
question is, what did Ranga ask Gundappa to
280 do? Ranga requested Gundappa to do
something. What was it?

P (reads) : Swamiji, I don(t have any children ...

T : Yes, that's it

P (reads) : but I have a young ass ...

285 T : Yes ...

P (reads) : will you kindly change it into a man for me?

T : ... into a man for me. Excellent ...
marvellous. Ranga requested Gundappa to
change his ass into a man. To change his
290 ass into a ...

P (most) : man.

T : Did Gundappa agree to it? ... Did he?...
Did he? ... Say yes or no.

P (one) : Yes miss

295 T : On what conditions did Gundappa agree to it?

P : Gundappa agreed to it on condition that he
would not tell anybody about it.

T : Gundappa agreed to it on condition that
Ranga would not tell anybody about it; and
300 also on condition that he would pay him two
hundred rupees. Now look at picture three.
Who is this?

P (all) : Gundappa ... (some) Ranga

T : Ranga came to Gundappa after a week. Did he
305 or not? Did he come after a week?

P : (various confused)

T : Did Gundappa change his ass into a man?

P : No

T : What did he do with the ass?

310 P (reads) : Gundappa hid the ass in a mango grove ...

T : Gundappa hid Ranga's ass in a mango grove. He
did not change the ass into a man. But what

did Gundappa tell Ranga when he ...

315 P :Gundappa ... Ranga ... when he ...
Gundappa said to him ...

T :Not all of you at one ...

P (reads) :All right," he said, "Usually I don't do such
a thing; your case is a special one."

320 T :That is when he came to him for the first
time. Now I am asking you about ... the
second visit. Ranga's second visit to
Gundappa ... Gundappa

P (one) :told him ...

T :Yes.

325 P :Gundappa told him that he had changed his ass
into a man.

T :changed his ass into a ...

P (one) :great man ...

T :not an ordinary man but a ...

330 P(many) :great man.

T :Gundappa told Ranga that he had changed his ass
into a great man. Look at picture four now.
Who is this?

P : (confused cries) Ranga ...

335 T :It is the Patel of Shivalli. And who is this?

P :Ranga.

T :Ranga. What is he having in his hand?

P : (various) bag ...

T : What is this? what bag is this?

340 P : (various) Juttu ...

T :What bag is it? What is it made of? ... It is
a gunny bag.

P (many) :Gunny bag

345 T :Did you forget this also? I told you at the
beginning of the class that it is a gunny bag.
He is having a gunny bag in his hand ... Did the
Patel notice Ranga?

P : No miss.

T : No, he did not notice him. What did Ranga do
350 to attract the Patel's attention?

P : The Patel ...

T : Look at the picture and answer the question.

P : (various) The Patel was ... the Patel was ...
355 Ranga ... Ranga ... the Patel ... (rest
indecipherable)

T : Now listen to my question carefully. I didn't
ask you what the Patel was doing when Ranga
looked at him

P : (various quote from the book what the Patel
360 was doing ...)

T : If I ask you the question 'What was the Patel
doing when Ranga saw him? then your answer is...

P (reads) : The Patel was sitting in the Panchayat Hall ...

T : ... when Ranga saw him. Now, my question is,
365 what did Ranga do to attract the Patel's
attention?

P : Ranga waved ... Ranga waved ...

T : That's altogether a better answer ...

P : (continues) Ranga waved his gunny bag to ...
370 attract ... attract the Patel's ...

T : ... attention. Ranga waved his gunny bag to
attract the Patel's attention. Shall we stop
the story here?

P : yes miss.

375 T : Here, I've some sentences. You must tell me
whether they are true or false. Look at
sentence one. The villagers treated Gundappa
as a holy man.

P : (various) false ... false ... false ... true ...
380 true, miss ...

T : The villagers treated Gundappa as a holy man ...

P : True, miss

T : It is true. Second sentence. Gundappa did

- : Not want to take revenge on the Patel.
- 385 P (many) : False.
- T : False. Gundappa wanted to take revenge on the Patel. Ranga believed that Gundappa could change his ass into a man.
- P : (various) true ...
- 390 T : Four. Gundappa refused to comply with Ranga's request.
- P : (various confused) true ... false
- T : Five. Gundappa changed Ranga's ass into a man.
- 395 P : False
- T : Gundappa did not change his ass into a man. He hid it in a grove and he told him a lie. Complete the following sentences suitably. (reads from board) One. Gundappa
- 400 opened his eyes ...
- P : eatables ... hungry ... with hunger ...
- T : Because he was ...
- P (many) : Hungry
- T : Number two. Gundappa satisfied his hunger
- 405 by ...
- P : (confusion) ... eatables ...
- T : Eating the eatables ... eating the eatables. Three. The villagers treated him as a (folds hands) ...
- 410 P : Holy man.
- T : Very good. You are giving good answers. He needed money - Now I am going to ask one girl now (pointing) you stand up and tell me - He needed money because ...
- 415 P : He want to go to hotel and cinema.
- T : Very good. He wanted to go to hotels and cinemas. Five. Gundappa wanted to take revenge on the Patel (rubs thumb and finger in gesture meaning 'money')

- 420 P (many) : money
 T : By earning money. Right. Now look at exercise three. In column one I've got the names of Gundappa, Ranga and the Patel. In column two I've got these words - clever, cunning, innocent.
- 425 P (various) : Gundappa ... Gundappa ...
 T : Now you must tell me which word goes with which name. Only one at a time.
- P : Gundappa - cunning.
- 430 T : Yes, Gundappa was a cunning man.
 P : (raises hand) miss ...
 T : Yes. You.
 P : Ranga ... (rest lost in noise of other pupils)
 T : Ranga was a ...
- 435 P : (more confusion)
 T : I'm asking her (pointing)
 P : innocent.
 T : Innocent. Ranga was an innocent man.
 P : (various confused) Patel ... clever ...
- 440 T : The Patel was a clever man. Look at exercise No. four. Choose the most appropriate answer. In the temple, Gundappa was happy because ... I've given four alternatives, (a) he had his food, (b) he got a darshan of the God daily, (c) he got good recreation, and (d) he got money.
- 445 P : (confusions) ... he got his food ...
 T : Yes, he got his food. Sit down.
- Exercise five. I've got four events. They're all jumbled. You must give me the correct order: (a) Ranga requested Gundappa to change his ass into a man; (b) Ranga saw the Patel in the Panchayat Hall; (c) an old man dropped
- 450

- some eatables in front of Gundappa;
- 455 (d) Gundappa told Ranga that he had changed his ass into the Patel of Shivalli.
(pointing) You must tell me which comes first.
- P : Girl pointed to selects (c)
- T : That's good. An old man dropped some
- 460 eatables in front of Gundappa. Now
(pointing) you must tell me which must come next.
- P : An old man dropped some eatables in front of Gundappa.
- 465 T : That's finished. That's the first event.
And which sentence describes the second picture? (points to a pupil)
- P : (selected pupil reads sentence (a).)
- T : Very good. Ranga requested Gundappa to
- 470 change his ass into a man. Now you
(pointing) tell me which is the third one.
- P : (same pupil as for sentence 1 reads sentence (d).)
- T : Excellent.
- 475 P : (another pupil reads sentence (b).)
- T : No. What she says is right. Gundappa told Ranga that he had changed his ass into the Patel of Shivalli. After that he went to the Panchayat Hall. Now (pointing) you tell
- 480 me.
- P : (reads sentence (b).)
- T : Very good. Ranga saw the Patel in the Panchayat Hall. Now open your books at page 29. Which is the first paragraph that
- 485 you read today? Can you give me the main idea contained in the paragraph? Only one sentence you must give me. What does the paragraph tell you about?

- P : (various wild guesses)
- 490 T : First paragraph - 'as the night grew darker...'
- look at the picture and tell me; one
sentence; the main idea in the paragraph.
- P (reads) : Gundappa satisfied his hunger ... (much noise)
- T : yes, very good. Go on.
- 495 P : Gundappa satisfied his hunger by ...(much noise)
- T : ... by eating the eatables in front of him.
That's fine. Sit down. Now, next
paragraph. Can you summarise the next
paragraph in one sentence? Look at it and tell
me. What does the second paragraph tell you
about? ... What does Gundappa want to do?...
500
- P : live in cities ...
- T : Not only that. This is more important than
that.
- 505 P : By earning ...
- T : Yes. By earning money what did he want to
do? ... (pause - 4s) ... What did he want to
do to the Patel?
- P : (various) ... he wanted to earn money ...
510 revenge ...
- T : Yes, revenge ...
- P : He wanted to take revenge on the Patel by
earning money.
- T : Yes, he wanted to take revenge on the Patel.
515 All that he did because he wanted to take
revenge on the Patel. Look at the next
paragraph. In the last line, 'I must make
a man out of this ass'.
- P : Patel ... Patel ...
- 520 T : What does 'this ass' refer to?
- P : (various: indecipherable)
- T : (pointing to one pupil) Why don't you say it
out loud? 'This ass' refers to ...
- P (One) : Gundappa

APPENDIX 9 - Transcript 4

Teacher: Mr. Nagabhooshanam

Date: 8th September, 1979

Teaching: Detailed text

Pupils: Std. IX, G.G.H.S., Malleswaram, Bangalore, India.

- T : Just now the teacher was telling you one story; but it was half a story; Now I am telling you the complete story. Eh?
- P : Yes sir. (pause - 3s)
- 5 T : Yes ... What type of man Gundappa ... was?
- P : Gundappa was a cunning man.
- T : Yes. Gundappa was a cunning man.
- P : Cunning man.
- T : Cunning man. Yes. One must answer. Not
- 10 all. Yes?
- P (all) : Yes sir.
- T : (unrolls roller board with pictures) (points to picture) Who is this man?
- P (all) : Gundappa
- 15 T : (pointing at picture) Who is this?
- P (several) : Ranga
- T : Ranga?
- P : Holy man.
- T : He is a holy man. And who is this man?
- 20 P : (confused) Gundappa ... Ranga ...
- T : Ranga
- P : Ass ... Hass ...
- T : ... Sit down ... So, how did Gundappa satisfy his hunger? ... (pause - 4s) ...
- 25 How did ... yes?
- P : Gundappa go to the temple and sitting some time some people put some prasadam and
- T : Yes
- P : some eatables and he opened his eyes and saw
- 30 the eatables

Ap.108.

P : ate the
T : ate the
P : (confusion) ... eatables ...
T : Yes and in that way he satisfied his
35 hunger. Do you like the ...
matches ... football matches ...
P : Yes sir ... football ...
T : Have you witnessed any time ...
P : matches ... football ...
40 T : While the test match is going on, the
people will be curious to observe the test
match. When the test match is going on,
what will the people do? ... When the
test match is going on the people ...
45 (pause - 2s) .. ah ... sitting at the match
and they observe the test match curiously.
They are curious to observe the ...
(pause - 2s) ... test match. (writes on
the board) Do you like these films?
50 P : Yes ... yes ...
T : Very much?
P : No ... yes ... yes sir, very much ... no sir
I like ... I don't like ...
T : I am crazy about films ... I'll tell you
55 something else. Yesterday I was going in a
train. Some people were throwing stones at
a man ...
P : (various) why sir? ... mad ...
T : Yes, he was a madman. He was a mad chap
60 ... right? Afterwards, he was muttering
some words ... ah?
P : (various indecipherable)
T : So, he showed he was a madman ... a mad chap
... the people, what did the people do there?
65 P : stones ...
T : stones

Ap.109.

P : beating and striking ...

T : They dragged him to the hospital ... They dragged him ...

70 P : To the hospital. (various chatter)

T : (writes on board) ... yes ... now ... I've set up a picture story, and after you'll have to read for yourself, and answer the questions I'll put ... ah?

75 P : Yes sir.

T : This is ...

P : Patel

T : The Patel. This is ...

P : Ranga

80 T : Ranga. He is wav... what is .. ah ..

P : Gunny bag

T : He is waving a gunny bag. Why is he waving ... the gunny bag?

P : (various) I don't understand sir ... I don't ...

85 J T : He is waving the gunny bag to attract the attention of ... the Patel ... Gundappa told Ranga to go to the village. There you will find your ass converted into a man. He was Patel; he was in the Panchayat Hall and deciding the case. So he was busy when Ranga went there and ... waving the gunny bag was able to attract his attention. It was attention of ...

90

95 P : Gunny bag

T : Patel. Is he ... converted from ass, this Patel? ...

P : No

T : No, quite different. But Gundappa told Ranga that his ass was converted into a man, and he was there in Shivalli today. So he went there

100

and waved the gunny bag to attract his ...
 attention. At first, Patel saw him, and ...
 what did Ranga say? ... Don't you recognise
 105 me? Don't you recognise me? I don't know,
 he said. But you are an ass, a week ago you
 were an ass, you take from the ... hay from
 this bag. So ... Patel grew angry, and asked
 these persons ... to send him out, out of
 110 that house. So the persons of Patel grabbed
 him and threw him out. Some mischievous boys
 threw stones, chased ... he was crying, that

P :Gundappa

T :Gundappa was crying that the Patel was an ass,
 115 a week ago he was an ass, and he was chasing
 ... didn't recognise me ... He says like
 that ... and ... the other people ... the
 people there in Shivalli ... are ... think
 that the ... Ranga was a madman ...

120 mischievous boys threw stones and ... towards
 him ... and one of the stones ... hit him ...
 and the blood came ... so ... you now open
 your books now ... turn to page 33 ... Now
 read this passage silently and I will ask some
 125 questions ... up to the end of the story ...
 (pupils read silently for a period) ... Now
 answer the questions. First question. What
 did Ranga tell the Patel? What did Ranga
 tell the Patel?

130 P :Patel ... Shivalli ... Panchayat Hall ...

T :Ranga told him that he was an ass ... that he
 used to eat hay from the gunny bag ... and now,
 second question ... What did the Patel do
 when Ranga called him an ass?

135 P :Shivalli ...

T :At Shivalli ... what did Patel do when he
 called him an ass ... Ranga ...

Ap.111.

P : Ranga said ... (various confused)
T : you read it from there (pointing to place
140 in text)
P : The Patel ... Patel ...
T : Come on, read from there ...
P : The Patel asked ... asked ...
T : Patel asked his man to send him out ...
145 asked his person to send him out. That's
the answer ... What did Ranga tell Gundappa
on his return?
P : Ranga visited the ...
T : yes ...
150 P : ... Ranga visited the ... (various confused)
T : What did Ranga ask Gundappa on his return?
Ranga asked ... (pause - 4s) ... change
his ...
P : Changing ...
155 T : ... the Patel into ...
P : (various confused) ... and ass
T : again ... again ... change ... an ass ...
P : hass
T : Ranga asked Gundappa ...
160 P (most) : Ranga asked Gundappa ... to change ...
changing ... (confused)
T : ... into an ass. How much money did Ranga
give Gundappa?
P (various) : one hundred ... two hundred ... five hundred ...
165 two hundred ...
T : Yes, come on ...
P : (confusion)
T : So. Rangappa ... Ranga asked Gundappa to
change ...
170 P : back
T : back into ...
P : back into ... its place ...

- T : ... so he paid five hundred rupees, he gave five hundred rupees to ...
- 175 P : two hundred rupees ...
- T : Two hundred for making the man to an ass, and three hundred to change him back again ... (pause - 5s) ... Now here are some questions. Say whether the following sentences are true or
- 180 P : false
- T : false. Read the sentences. One, not all
- P : (reading. Indecipherable; text is 'The Patel of Shivalli was an ass')
- 185 T : Is it true, or false?
- P : false ... false ...
- T : Is it true? The Patel was not an ass. So it is false. Second one. Mischievous boys threw stones at Ranga.
- 190 P : true ... true ... true ... yes ...
- T : True. Gundappa gave Rs 500 to Ranga,
- P : true ... false ... true ... true sir ...
- T : True or false? ...
- P : false ... five hundred rupees ...
- 195 T : Who gave five hundred rupees to whom?
- P : Ranga gave Rs 500 to Gundappa
- T : But the sentence says that Gundappa gave five hundred rupees to Ranga...
- P : False ...
- 200 T : Then it's a false one. Gundappa left the village ...
- P : (various indecipherable) ... true ... false ... true ...
- T : Yes, it's true. Gundappa left the village with the money. Now read the next exercise.
- 205 Complete the sentences (much noise; teacher's voice barely audible) ... Ranga was a ... Ranga was a ... what was he?

Ap.113.

P : (much noise)

210 T : Ranga was a washerman ...

P : Ranga was ... Ranga was a (much chatter in
Kannada)

T : sentence two ... Patel ...

P : innocent man ...

215 T : Ranga was an innocent man ... Patel ...
proposed to ...

P : throw him ...

T : yes ...

P : throw him out ...

220 T : send ...

P : send him away ...

T : ... Gundappa gave back to ...

P : (various) money ... Ranga ...

T : (incredulous tone) gave money away?

225 P : (various) Gundappa ... Ranga ... (confusion)...

T : Gundappa gave back the ...

P : Money ...

T : money?

P : Ranga ... money ... back ... (confusion)

230 T : ... back the ass Gundappa gave back the ass to
Ranga. So. Just write down these sentences
on the blackboard ... you write these
sentences in your notebooks ... and after that
you can go ... you write down these ...

APPENDIX 10 - Transcript 5

Teacher - Venkat Raman

Date: 16th August, 1979

Teaching: Comprehension of non-detailed text

Pupils: Std IX at G.G.H.S. Malleswaram, Bangalore, India

- Teacher : Who is this story about? ... Who is this story about?
- Pupils : Whang, sir ... (T: good) ... Whang the Miller
- 5 T : This story is about Whang the Miller. This story is about ...
- P (all) : Whang the Miller
- T : What kind of a man was Whang? What kind of a man was Whang?
- P : (confused muttering)
- 10 T : How was he by nature? ... (pause - 3s) ... second line, first paragraph, look at that line ...
- P (reads) : He was by nature very greedy
- T : He was ...
- 15 P (all) : by nature
- T : by nature
- P : very greedy
- T : He was by nature very greedy. ... Now what did Whang hear about his neighbour? ... What did
- 20 Whang hear about his neighbour?
- P (reads) : One day, as his mind was absorbed in such wishes, someone brought him the news that a neighbour of his had discovered a big pan of money which had been underground.
- 25 T : That's good ... Was Whang very happy to hear the news? ... Was he happy to hear about the news?
- P : unhappy
- T : Good. He was unhappy ... he was ...
- P (all) : unhappy

- 30 T : Because Whang was a greedy person, and wanted more money for himself, so he became unhappy ... Now. What did Whang dream about? What did Whang dream about?
- P (reads) : He dreamed that a large pan of gold and
35 diamonds lay hidden under the northern part of the foundations of his mill.
- T : That's right, have you got that? Second page, second paragraph? He dreamed that ... have you got that? Come on (pointing to another pupil) you read it.
- 40 P (reads) : He dreamed that a large pan of gold and diamonds lay hidden under the northern part of the foundations of his mill.
- T : Now I'll give you some sentences. You must
45 say whether they are true or false. Now the first sentence (unrolls roller blackboard). Whang was a rich man. (pause - 4s) Is it true?
- P : Right, sir (one pupil says; the rest pick
50 it up)
- T : Was he?
- P : (fewer; hesitant) Right sir ... (pause - 4s) ... (one pupil) wrong ... (several other pupils pick it up)
- 55 T : Then he was not a rich man. How do you tell he was not a rich man?
- P : (scattered cries) wrong ... right ...
- T : Look at the second paragraph ... he earned ... the profits on the mill ... second paragraph,
60 third line ...
- P (one) : wrong, sir
- T : So it's wrong. The profits on the mill were ...
- P : wrong

- 65 T : meagre ... meagre ... very small ... Now,
next sentence. Whang's neighbour dreamed
about the treasure three times
- P : right, sir.
- 70 T : He dreamed about it for three successive
nights ... Did I tell you the meaning of
that word 'successive'? Now, next one.
Whang did not reveal his dream to anyone,
even his wife.
- P (various) : wrong ... right ...
- 75 T : right ... read that line from the text ...
(pause - 4s) ... second page, second
paragraph, eleventh line ... (pause - 3s)
seven or eight lines ... (pause - 2s) ...
can you find that line ... This line ...'
Whang did not reveal his dream to anyone,
80 even his wife' (N.B. during all this
there is an indecipherable sound of children
reading) ... not even to his ...
- P (most) : wife ... (muttering) find it, sir ...
- 85 T : Good. Next one. There was a pan of money
under the broad flat stone in the mill.
- P : (various) wrong, sir ... right sir ...
- T : See the last sentence ... was there any
money? ... The mill ... had fallen down ...
he lost his only support ...
- 90 P : (many confused responses)
- T : He did not find the ...
- P (one) : wrong
- T : ... expected treasure - so it's wrong ...

(teacher then goes on to vocabulary)

THE CUNNING MAN

Long ago there lived a village accountant in Torvi. He had a son by name Gundappa. Gundappa was a clever boy, but he never took interest in his studies. His father tried a lot to teach him how to read and write. But it was of no use. Throughout the day, Gundappa was either eating or playing. This went on for years and, true to his name, Gundappa grew into a short, fat young man.

One day his father called him and said, "Gundappa, however much I tried, I could not make you educated. You do not know how to read and write even. I am sure some day you will have to repent of it. Now that you are old enough to take care of yourself, I want you to go somewhere, work and earn your living." Gundappa had no choice in the matter. Since he could not read and write, he knew he could not get any job in any office. He was not good at anything else either. As he loved a life of ease, he could never think of doing any manual work. With a little money his father had given him and a lot of vague ideas about the kind of job he should take up, one fine morning Gundappa left his village in search of a living.

He went from village to village and from town to town. Whenever there was a chance of getting a job, either he disliked the job or he was disliked by the employer. The little money he had was spent soon. He realised that if he did not earn money he would have to starve. He decided to do any work to earn his livelihood. He came to hear of a place called Shivalli. In this village there was no school. The villagers wanted one badly because their children attended a school that was three miles away from their place. Clever as Gundappa was by nature, he hit upon a plan to make use of this

news to earn his livelihood.

The very next day Gundappa went to Shivalli and told the villagers that he wanted to open a school there. All the villagers welcomed the idea. The young Patel, who was the leader of the village, assured Gundappa of all help.

Gundappa was able to get an old building. He borrowed a few benches and carpets. With the help of the villagers, he arranged everything. One fine morning he declared the school open. The parents started sending their children to school to be taught by Gundappa. Very soon the school was full of children.

As you know, Gundappa did not know how to read and write. How did he teach the children then? Strange was the way in which Gundappa taught his pupils.

When all the children came into the classroom, Gundappa would say to one child, "Read the first lesson," to another, "Copy the fourth lesson," and to the third he would say, "Do the sums." Then he would say, "All of you now read the fifth lesson silently," or "Now, the boys will read the lesson to the girls and then the girls will make the boys write it." He would also sometimes say, "Both the boys and the girls copy the tenth lesson." He would make the boys teach the girls sums and the girls to make the boys read after them.

The school went on like this. The villagers always found their children doing something or other at school. They were very happy with their new teacher and thought him to be a wise man.

The children at school never guessed that their teacher could not read or write. They spent their time happily at

school teaching one another.

One day Gundappa was in the school asking the children to do various things. A woman came in with a letter in her hand. Holding it before Gundappa, she said, "My son is working in Bangalore. This letter must be from him. Please read it to me."

Gundappa never imagined that a testing time like that would come so soon and so unexpectedly. The woman was waiting anxiously with the letter in her hand. Gundappa took the letter from her. First he held it in his left hand and looked at it. Then he took it in his right hand and pretended to go through it. He turned it this way and that, turned it upside down, and held it close to his eyes. He rubbed his eyes, shook his head, looked angry, looked sad, lifted his eyes to the sky, turned the letter upside down again and pretended to read it again. Suddenly he remembered what his father had said to him. Tears rolled down his cheeks and he started weeping.

In the beginning the woman was surprised at the strange behaviour of the teacher. But when he started weeping, she feared that something bad had happened to her son. Then she also started crying. The children who were watching their teacher and the woman, felt shocked and they too started crying. In no time this noise in the school reached every house and all the villagers rushed to the school.

"What is going on here? Why are you crying?" asked the Patel. The woman stopped crying for a while and said, "I asked the teacher to read out to me my son's letter. He held it in front of his eyes and started weeping. I do not know what has happened to my son." "Stop crying," the Patel commanded. Let me have the letter." He took the letter from the teacher and

read it. "Your son is alright. Do not worry about him," he said to the woman.

Turning to Gundappa, he said, "Why did you weep when you were asked to read the letter?" Gundappa, still sobbing, said, "I ... I ... I do not know ... how ... to ... how to read and write." The Patel was taken aback on hearing it. He became very angry and said, "How dare you work as a teacher when you do not know how to read and write! You have deceived us. Don't you feel ashamed of being an illiterate? You are a cheat. You are an ass, not a man. Leave the village at once and don't show us your face again!"

Gundappa realised that all the villagers were angry with him and that he could not continue to stay in the village. So he left the village not knowing where to go. He walked and walked till sunset. He saw a tank and a small temple near. He went into the temple. Resting his back against a pillar, he sat near the door of the room where the idol was kept. Soon he was asleep. Men and women came to the temple. They saw a stranger there. An old man thought that the stranger was in deep meditation. So, while leaving the temple, he put a few pieces of coconut in front of Gundappa. The others who saw this also put some 'Prasadam' in front of Gundappa.

As the night grew darker, Gundappa's hunger increased and made him open his eyes. The eatables in front of him were a pleasant surprise and he made a good supper of them. He had good sleep that night and spent the next day also in the same place in the temple. Since he was in the temple throughout the day, he got enough fruits and other eatables for his breakfast, lunch and supper. This went on for days.

Soon Gundappa came to be regarded as a holy man and the villagers round about respected him. Some thought that he had

mystic powers. But Gundappa did not have the makings of a saint. He liked to live in big cities wandering about and going to hotels and cinemas. For that he needed money, but he didn't have any. Besides this, however much he tried, he could not forget what the Patel of Shivalli had called him. He had a very strong desire to pay the Patel back in his own coin. But how he could do that was another problem. Gundappa waited patiently for an opportunity of earning some money and taking revenge on the Patel.

One day Gundappa was sitting in his usual place in the temple. There was no one else there. He said to himself, "I was happy in my own village. But for the Patel, I would have been happier at Shivalli. He called me an ass. An ass cannot earn money, but I must." He thought for a while and pointing to himself he said, "To earn some money, I must make a man out of this ass."

Just then the village washerman, Ranga, happened to be very near the temple with his ass. He heard what Gundappa said to himself and felt very happy. He rushed in and fell at the feet of Gundappa. Then he got up and with folded hands said "Swamiji, I don't have any children. But I have a young ass. You kindly change it into a man for me."

Gundappa was surprised at this strange request. He said, "Have you lost your senses? Can an ass ever be turned into a man?"

"I know it can be done by you," replied Ranga, "Only a few minutes ago, I heard you say so. I also heard you say that you need money. I am ready to give you money. Please don't say 'No'."

The much-awaited opportunity of getting some money had

come to Gundappa at last. He had never forgotten what the Patel had called him. A definite plan of taking revenge on him came to his mind. He decided to exploit the washerman's innocence.

"All right," he said, "Usually I don't do such a thing, your case is a special one." He paused for a while and then added, "There are certain conditions and you have got to abide by them."

"I am ready to do anything you ask me," said Ranga eagerly.

Gundappa said, "No one else should know that I am changing your ass into a man. You should give me two hundred rupees for this work. This also should be a secret between you and me." Ranga very willingly agreed to these conditions.

"Then," said Gundappa, "everything is settled. I need a week to change this ass into a man. Now leave him here and come back with the money after a week."

After Ranga left, Gundappa hid the ass in a mango grove nearby. Early in the morning, at the end of the week, Ranga went to Gundappa full of hopes. Gundappa asked him affectionately, "How are you, Ranga? I have changed your ass into a great man. He is now the Patel of Shivalli. You can go there and meet him."

Ranga was extremely happy at the good news. "Will he be able to recognise me as his master when I meet him?" he asked.

"I think he will," said Gundappa, "but, to be quite sure, you had better take the gunny bag from which you used to feed him with hay. He might have forgotten you, but he can't forget

the bag."

When Ranga was about to leave, Gundappa asked him, "Now that I have done my work, give me the money. "Certainly, I will," said Ranga, "as soon as I return, I shall give you the money." So saying, he ran to his house. There he took the gunny bag and set out for Shivalli.

When he reached the place, the Patel was sitting in the Panchayat Hall. He was trying to settle a dispute between two groups of the village. Ranga said to himself, "Indeed, Swamiji is very wise. He has changed my ass into a clever man."

The Patel was so busy that he did not see Ranga getting into the Panchayat Hall. But Ranga wanted to be seen by him. He moved from place to place in the hall. He smiled and waved his hand to the Patel. The Patel did not take notice of him. Then Ranga remembered what the Swamiji had told him. He took out the gunny bag, waved it and smiled at the Patel whenever he looked up.

Though the Patel was busy listening to the dispute of the two parties, he could watch the activities of Ranga. He became very curious and sent for the man. Ranga thought that the Patel had recognised him and felt pleased.

"Who are you?" asked the Patel. Ranga felt a little hurt and said, "Why, don't you know me?" "No, I don't," replied the Patel. "I have never seen you before." "You haven't, haven't you?" remarked Ranga. Then he held out the gunny bag and said, "Look at this attentively. It will tell you who I am." "Are you crazy?" asked the Patel angrily, "This is a gunny bag. How can it make me know who you are?" Looking at the Patel, Ranga said, "This is the very gunny bag from which you used to eat hay when you were an ass only a week ago." "A what!"

exclaimed the Patel, "How dare you say such a thing to me?" Then he turned to the people sitting around and said, "He is a mad chap. Take him away from here and see that he doesn't come back to the village."

Immediately a few persons caught hold of Ranga and started dragging him out of the Panchayat Hall. Ranga resisted it, but they were too strong for him. While being dragged out, he shouted angrily, "Your Patel was an ass in the past and I made a man out of him. Now he is driving me out of the village. See how ungrateful he is! Your Patel was an ass." The villagers who heard it, pitied him for his madness. But some mischievous children hurled stones at him. One really hit him on his forehead and blood rushed out.

In rage and pain, Ranga returned to the temple and told Gundappa all that had happened. Then he took out from his pocket a cover containing money, put it at the feet of Gundappa and with folded hands said, "Swamiji, I want to teach that Patel a lesson. Here are five hundred rupees, two hundred rupees for making a man out of my ass and three hundred rupees for changing that man into an ass. Please put the ass back in its place."

The very sight of money filled Gundappa with great joy. With much difficulty he put on a sad face and said, "I am really very sorry for whatever has happened to you. That Patel deserves to be changed into an ass. Come here early tomorrow and you will find your ass."

That night Gundappa brought back Ranga's ass from the hideout and tied him to a tree near the temple. By the time Ranga came to the temple, Gundappa was ready to leave that place for good. Ranga recognised his ass at once. He asked the ass, "Do you recognise me now at least? I am your

master again and I shall drive you to work. Thanking Gundappa, he rode home on his ass, beating him all the way.

Gundappa went into the temple and put all his things into a bag. When he felt the money in his pocket, he congratulated himself on his cleverness. With the bag in his hand and a smile on his face, he stepped out of the village temple. No one has ever heard of him till today.

EXERCISES

I. Answer the following questions:

1. Why did Gundappa leave his village?
2. What made Gundappa open a school?
3. What did the villagers and the children think of their new teacher?
4. Why did the Patel call Gundappa an ass?
5. How did Gundappa satisfy his hunger on the day of his leaving Shivalli?
6. How did Gundappa take revenge on the Patel?
7. What made Ranga believe that Gundappa could change his ass into a man?
8. Why was Ranga in rage and pain when he returned to the temple?
9. Why did Ranga give Gundappa five hundred rupees?
10. Why did Gundappa leave the temple once for all?

II. Write a paragraph on each of the following:

1. Gundappa's boyhood.
2. Gundappa's behaviour when he took the letter from the woman.
3. Ranga at Shivalli.

APPENDIX 12 - Text 2

WHANG THE MILLER

(Tales and folklore abound in the old Chinese literature. Mostly they contain moral. The following lesson contains the story of a greedy man from China. The moral of the story is 'Greed brings about the ruin of a man; Excess of greed for money ruins a man full' or 'A greedy person brings about his own ruin.')

In an ancient city of China there lived some years ago a miller by name Whang. He was by nature very greedy. Nobody else loved money as much as he did. He looked upon rich men with the utmost respect. If somebody in company mentioned the name of a rich man, Whang would pretend to have close friendship with him. He would say, "Ching Chund! I know him very well. He and I are bosom friends." But if a poor man was mentioned, he pretended not to have any knowledge of him, though he might have known him for years.

In spite of all his eagerness for wealth, Whang was really poor. He had nothing except the profits of his mill to support him. But, though the profits were meagre, they were certain. So long as his mill worked he was sure of feeding himself and his family. He was such a frugal man that every day he laid by some money and sometimes he would count his coins. The sight of his small fortune gave him a great deal of joy. But he was not really happy because he was not contented. No doubt he need not have to worry about the ordinary comforts of life but he was not satisfied with them. His desires led him to feel that he was very poor; his ambition was to become a wealthy man.

One day, as his mind was absorbed in such wishes, someone brought him the news that a neighbour of his had discovered a big pan of money which had been under ground. He had only

dreamed of it for three successive nights before. Poor Whang was very much depressed by receiving the news. "Here I am," he said, "toiling and moiling from morning till night for a few paltry farthings, while neighbour Hunks only goes quietly to bed, and dreams of thousands before it was morning. Oh, that I could dream like him! With what pleasure would I dig round the pan; how slyly would I carry it home; not even my wife should see me; and then, the pleasure of thrusting one's hand into a heap of gold up to the elbow!"

Such thoughts made the miller only unhappy. He no longer had the desire to work hard as before. He was quite disgusted with small gains and his customers one by one began to forsake him. Every day he renewed his wish and went to bed in order to have the auspicious vision. For a long time his wish remained unfulfilled but one night fortune seemed to smile upon him. Whang had the long cherished vision. He dreamed that a large pan of gold and diamonds lay hidden under the northern part of the foundation of his mill. The vision also suggested that a large flat stone covered the hidden treasure. Whang thanked his stars - they were at last pleased to grant him his wish, taking pity on him. He did not reveal this to anyone, not even to his wife. Who knows, the vision might not appear again the following nights if he revealed the secret. So, he waited for the recurrence of the dream for two succeeding nights to make sure that it was true. These wishes also were fulfilled. Whang dreamed twice again of the same pan of money, in the same place.

Now there could be no doubt about the treasure. So, getting up early on the third morning, he set out, with a mattock in his hand, to the mill and began to excavate that part of the wall which the dream had suggested. First he turned up, after digging a little while, a broken mug. That was a good omen! He dug deeper still and turned up a house tile,

a new and unbroken one. At last, after a good deal of digging he came to a broad flat stone. But it was too large and too heavy for one man to remove.

Whang was in raptures. He exclaimed, "Here it is! Under this stone there is the large pan of diamonds. I must go home, tell my wife about the whole affair and get her to help me in turning it up." Then he returned home and let his wife know the windfall that was going to make them rich. The woman was extremely delighted. She ran to Whang and embraced him in a flight of joy. But it was not enough for them to know that there was a treasure; they were eager to know how large it was. So they hurried to the spot where Whang had been digging. There they found, not the expected treasure, but their only support, the mill, which had collapsed and fallen.

EXERCISE

Answer the following questions:

1. How did Whang look upon the rich and the poor men?
2. How fond was Whang of his money?
3. What did Whang hear about his neighbour?
4. What was the secret desire of Whang?
5. What did Whang dream about?
6. What did Whang find under the wall?
7. Why did Whang bring his wife to the mill?
8. What did Whang and his wife find at the place of digging?

Composition:-

Bring out the greed of Whang in your words in about six sentences.

APPENDIX 13 -

THE SUBSTITUTION TABLE TEST

The men	is washing	a song	at home
The woman	is learning	fruit and nuts	in the river
The boy	is eating	cooked chicken	outside the school
The baby	are selling	sarees	at school

(Oral instructions: Make five sentences from this table.

Your sentences should make good sense, and you should use one phrase from each of the four columns. (teachers allowed to explain in Kannada if necessary)

For example:

The woman is eating cooked chicken at home.

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

ANSWER PATTERN

Sentence	Analysis	Frequency
The men is washing	inc;f.c.	4
The men is washing a song at home	f.c.;nons.	7
The men is washing a song outside the school	f.c.;nons.	2
The men is washing fruit and nuts in the river	f.c.;acc.	5
The men is washing sarees in the river	f.c.;acc.	10
The men is learning	inc. f.c.	1
The men is learning in the river	inc. f.c.	1
The men is learning a song	inc.f.c.	2
The men is learning a song at home	f.c.;acc.	4
The men is learning a song outside the school	f.c.;acc.	2
The men is learning a song at school	f.c.;weak	1
The men is learning fruit and nuts	f.c.;nons	2
The men is learning fruit and nuts in the river	f.c.;nons	8
The men is learning cooked chicken in the river	f.c.;nons	1
The men is learning sarees at home	f.c.;nons.	1
The men is learning sarees outside the school	f.c.;nons	2
The men is eating a song at home	f.c.; nons	1
The men is eating fruit and nuts at home	f.c.; acc.	3
The men is eating cooked chicken at home	f.c.; acc.	9
The men is eating sarees outside the school	f.c.; nons	1

inc.: incomplete f.c.: subject and verb do not agree

acc.: acceptable sense weak: weak sense

nons.: nonsense

Sentence	Analysis	Frequency
The men are selling a song outside the school	weak	1
The men are selling fruit and nuts	inc.; acc.	1
The men are selling fruit and nuts at school	weak	2
The men are selling fruit and nuts outside the school	acc.	11
The men are selling sarees at home	acc.	3
The men are selling sarees in the river	nons.	3
The men are selling sarees outside the school	weak	5
The men are selling sarees at school	nons.	1
The woman is washing in the river	inc.; acc.	4
The woman is washing a song at home	nons.	2
The woman is washing cooked chicken in the river	weak	1
The woman is washing sarees at home	acc.	4
The woman is washing sarees in the river	acc.	9
The woman is learning a song at home	acc.	1
The woman is learning a song in the river	weak	3
The woman is learning a song at school	weak	3
The woman is learning fruit and nuts in the river	nons.	8
The woman is learning cooked chicken at home	nons.	1
The woman is eating a song at home	nons.	2
The woman is eating fruit and nuts	inc.;acc.	1
The woman is eating fruit and nuts at home	acc.	1
The woman is eating fruit and nuts in the river	weak	2
The woman is eating fruit and nuts outside the school	acc.	2

Sentence	Analysis	Frequency
The woman is eating cooked chicken at home	acc.	26
The woman is eating cooked chicken outside the school.	acc.	1
The woman is eating cooked chicken at school	weak	2
The woman are selling a song at home	f.c.;nons	2
The woman are selling a song outside the school	f.c.;nons	1
The woman are selling fruit and nuts in the river	f.c.;nons	2
The woman are selling fruit and nuts outside the school	f.c.;acc.	3
The woman are selling sarees	f.c.; acc.	7
The boy is washing at school	inc.	2
The boy is washing a song at home	nons.	5
The boy is washing a song at school	nons.	2
The boy is washing fruit and nuts in the river	weak	2
The boy is washing fruit and nuts outside the school	weak	1
The boy is washing sarees in the river	weak	2
The boy is washing sarees outside the school	nons.	1
The boy is learning at school	inc.	4
The boy is learning a song at home	acc.	3
The boy is learning a song outside the school	acc.	2
The boy is learning a song at school	acc.	11
The boy is learning cooked chicken in the river	nons.	1
The boy is learning cooked chicken outside the school	nons.	1

Sentence	Analysis	Frequency
The boy is learning fruit and nuts outside the school	nons.	5
The boy is learning fruit and nuts at school	nons.	1
The boy is learning sarees	nons.; inc.	2
The boy is learning sarees in the river	nons.	1
The boy is learning sarees at school	nons.	1
The boy is eating	inc.	4
The boy is eating a song at school	nons.	1
The boy is eating fruit and nuts	inc.; acc.	2
The boy is eating fruit and nuts at home	acc.	3
The boy is eating fruit and nuts in the river	weak	8
The boy is eating fruit and nuts outside the school	acc.	3
The boy is eating cooked chicken	inc.	3
The boy is eating cooked chicken at home	acc.	5
The boy is eating cooked chicken outside the school	acc.	7
The boy is eating cooked chicken at school	weak	3
The boy are selling outside the school	f.c.; inc.	1
The boy are selling a song outside the school	f.c.; nons.	2
The boy are selling a song at school	f.c.; nons.	2
The boy are selling fruit and nuts	f.c.; inc.	2
The boy are selling fruit and nuts at home	f.c.; weak	2
The boy are selling fruit and nuts outside the school	f.c.; acc.	5

Sentence	Analysis	Frequency
The boy are selling fruit and nuts at school	f.c.; weak	3
The boy are selling sarees in the river	f.c.; nons.	2
The boy are selling sarees at school	f.c.; weak	1
The baby a song at home	inc.	2
The baby is washing at school	inc.	4
The baby is washing fruit and nuts in the river	nons.	3
The baby is washing fruit and nuts at school	nons.	5
The baby is washing sarees at home	nons.	1
The baby is washing sarees in the river	nons.	4
The baby is washing sarees at school	nons.	1
The baby is learning	inc.	1
The baby is learning a song at home	acc.	1
The baby is learning a song in the river	nons.	1
The baby is learning a song outside the school	acc.	1
The baby is learning a song at school	nons.	12
The baby is learning fruit and nuts	nons.	1
The baby is learning fruit and nuts outside the school	nons.	2
The baby is learning fruit and nuts at school	nons.	2
The baby is learning cooked chicken in the river	nons.	1
The baby is learning cooked chicken outside the school	nons.	3
The baby is learning sarees outside the school	nons.	1

Sentence	Analysis	Frequency
The baby is eating fruit and nuts	inc.	2
The baby is eating fruit and nuts at home	acc.	2
The baby is eating fruit and nuts outside the school	acc.	3
The baby is eating fruit and nuts at school	nons.	1
The baby is eating cooked chicken at home	acc.	8
The baby are selling a song in the river	f.c.; nons	1
The baby are selling a song outside the school	f.c.; nons	3
The baby are selling a song at school	f.c.; nons	4
The baby are selling fruit and nuts outside the school	f.c.; nons	2
The baby are selling cooked chicken outside the school	f.c.; nons	1
The baby are selling cooked chicken in the river	f.c.; nons	1
The baby are selling sarees	f.c.; nons	1
The baby are selling sarees at home	f.c.; nons	2
The baby are selling sarees in the river	f.c.; nons	1
The baby are selling sarees outside the school	f.c.; nons	2
The baby are selling sarees at school	f.c.; nons	13
For example is washing a song at home	nons.	1
For example is learning fruit and nuts in the river	nons.	1
For example are selling fruit and nuts	nons.	2
For example are selling cooked chicken	nons.	1
For example the boy is true	nons.	1
The cooked chicken is going to Madras	nons.	1
<u>Nonsense</u> - indecipherable, failed to follow instruction to select from table given, selected from wrong parts, put in wrong order, etc.		35
<u>No response</u>		17

APPENDIX 14 - Structure test: Active vs. Passive

(Instructions, except examples, given in Kannada)

Look at the items below. You have to decide whether each sentence should be active or passive, and put the verb in the correct form. Here are two examples:

(i) Mohan / sweep / the compound

should be:

Mohan is sweeping the compound (active)

(ii) The compound / sweep / Mohan

should be:

The compound is being swept by Mohan (passive)

Now do these:

1. The house / destroy / a fire

.....

2. Arya Bhavan / sell / good sweets

.....

3. The Taj Mahal / build / Shah Jehan

.....

4. Three buses / burn / the disturbances

.....

5. Good coffee / sell / this hotel

.....

Answer Pattern

N = 88

1. Points assessed: (i) presence of 'by';
(ii) verb form - 'was destroyed'

scripts containing 'by' - 16

verb forms:	was destroyed	6
	was destroy	10
	is destroy	12
	is destroy was	1
	has destroyed	4
	destroy	36
	indecipherable	11
	no response	8

2. Point assessed: verb form - 'sells' (also absence of 'by')

scripts containing 'by' - 14

verb forms:	sells	0
	will sell	4
	was selling	12
	selling	4
	is sell	10
	was sell	6
	sell	33
	indecipherable	7
	no response	12

Ap.138.

3. Points assessed: (i) presence of 'by';
(ii) verb form - 'was built'

scripts containing 'by' - 24

verb forms:	was built	8
	was build	22
	was is build	1
	was written	1
	build was	1
	build	38
	indecipherable	11
	no response	6

4. Points assessed: (i) passive without 'by'; with 'in';
(ii) verb form - 'were burnt' (or possibly
'are burning')

scripts containing 'in' - 0

" " 'by' - 7

verb forms:	were burnt	0
	are burning	2
	was burn	20
	are burn	7
	is burn	3
	burn	28
	indecipherable	10
	no response	18

Ap.139.

5. Points assessed: (i) presence of 'at' or 'by';
(ii) verb form - 'is sold'

scripts containing 'by' - 7
" " 'at' - 0

verb forms:	is sold	0
	was sell	13
	was selling	11
	sell is	10
	is sell	2
	is written	1
	sell	28
	indecipherable	11
	no response	12

APPENDIX 15 - Sentence re-writing test:

Re-write the sentence below, using the words given to start your new sentence:

1. Priest: "I am the most loving among men".

The priest said that

2. Ravi: "When I was in Madras yesterday, I saw Fort George".

Ravi said that

3. Sita: "That is the most beautiful temple I have ever seen."

Sita said that

4. Rama: "I shall go to Madras tomorrow".

Rama told me that

5. Shanthi: "Would you like a cup of tea?"

Shanthi asked me

6. Myself: "I need a holiday".

I said that

7. Sita ate breakfast: then she went to school.

After

8. It was the most beautiful temple he had ever seen.

He had never seen

9. Lakshmi ate breakfast; then she went to school.

Before

10. He had never seen buses as crowded as ours.

.....

II - Answer pattern N = 88

1. Points assessed:

i. transformation of first to third person:

transformation of 'I' to 'he'	41
" " 'I' to 'she'	1
" " 'I' to 'we'	5

ii. transformation of present to past tense:

transformation of 'am' to 'was'	25
" " 'am' to 'have'	12
" " 'am' to 'had'	6

iii. attempts made:

attempt made at transformation	47
re-ordering only	2
part in inverted commas transcribed unchanged	17
no attempt	22

2. Points assessed:

i. transformation of first to third person:

transformation of first 'I' to 'he'	40
" " " 'I' to 'it'	1
" " second 'I' to 'he'	7

ii. transformation of verb:

"	"	'saw' to 'had seen'	1
		'saw' to 'have seen'	2
		'was' to 'was going'	2

iii. transformation of 'yesterday'

"	"	"	to 'the previous day'	9
---	---	---	--------------------------	---

transformation of 'yesterday' to 'the next day'	1
--	---

iv. attempts made:

attempt made at transformation	41
part in inverted commas transcribed unchanged	20
no attempt	27

3. i. number of attempts:

attempts	36
part inverted commas transcribed without change	25
No attempt	27

ii. classification of attempts:

a) serious attempts:	8
----------------------	---

... was the most beautiful temple she had ever seen	1
... was the most beautiful temple he have ever seen	1
... was the most beautiful temple she have ever seen	1
... she had never seen that is the m- b- temple	1

Ap.143.

... she had is m- b- temple she ever seen	1
... he m- b- temple she have ever seen	1
... she had ever seen m- b- temple	2

b) re-orderings: 6

... I have ever seen the most beautiful temple	4
... he was ever m- b- t- most I have every seen	1
... he most I have you beautiful temple ever seen	1

c) confused attempts 22

... she is the most beautiful temple I have ever seen	5
... she is most beautiful temple ever seen	3
... she his most beautiful temple ever seen	3
... she is the most beautiful temple she as ever seen	3
... she was the m- b- temple I have ever seen	3
... he was the m- b- temple I have ever seen	2
... I don't see every beautiful temple	1
... he was when in Madras seen the m- b- temple	1
... he was when in Madras most beautiful temple ever seen	1

4. i. number of attempts:

attempts	39
part in inverted commas transcribed without change	24
no attempt	25

ii. transformations of 'I'

'I' changed to 'he'	34
'I' changed to 'she'	2
'I' changed to 'it'	2
'I' changed to 'the'	1

iii. verb tenses used:

was going	10
was shall go	5
had shall go	5
go	3
shall go	2
went	2
will go	2
was go	2
is go	2
had to go	1
has to go	1
was to go	1
has	1
was got	1
was good	1

iv. changes to 'tomorrow'

'tomorrow' changed to 'the next day'	13
'tomorrow' changed to 'today'	1

5. i. number of attempts:

attempts	37
part in inverted commas transcribed without change	29
no attempt	22

ii. classification of attempts:

a) correct: ' ... if I would like a cup of tea'	1
b) attempts where 2nd person is changed to 1st	3
'... will I like a cup of tea'	1
'... I like more a cup of tea.'	1
'... I don't like a cup of tea.'	1
c) 2nd person changed to 3rd person	14
'... she would like a cup of tea'	4
'... she was like a cup of tea.'	4
'... she like a cup of tea.'	2
'... he like a cup of tea.'	1
'... the like a cup of tea.	1
'... she won't like a cup of tea.'	1
'... she is like to cup of tea.	1
d) combination of 2nd and 3rd person	6
'... she was would you like a cup of tea?'	4
'... she was you like a cup of tea.'	2
e) attempts	13
'... she has would Shanthi like a cup of tea?'	3

'... was would you like a cup of tea?'	2
'... was a would you like a cup of tea?'	2
'... to like a cup of tea.'	2
'... your like a cup of tea.'	1
'... you will like a cup of tea.'	1
'... look a cup of tea.'	1
'... you like a cup of tea.'	1

6. i. number of attempts:

attempts	48
transcription without change of part in inverted commas	15
no attempt	25

ii. classification of attempts:

a) attempts in first person	16
'... myself a holiday'	6
'... I am need a holiday'	3
'... I need myself a holiday'	3
'... holiday I need a'	1
'... I will told today holiday'	2
'... I have a holiday'	1
b) attempts in third person	24
'... he was need a holiday'	5
'... he was I need a holiday.'	4
'... he had need a holiday'	3
'... she had need a holiday'	2
'... he need a holiday'	2

Ap.147.

'... myself he need a holiday'	2
'... he was a holiday'	2
'... she was need a holiday'	1
'... she need a holiday'	1
'... she as I need a holiday'	1
'... he self he need a holiday'	1
c) attempts in second person	8
'... you need a holiday'	4
'... holiday you need a'	2
'... you was need a holiday'	1
'... you had need a holiday'	1

7. i. number of attempts:

attempts	32
transcription with no change	18
no attempt	38

ii. classification of attempts:

a) correct	5
b) attempts that show understanding	14
'... she his breakfast she went to school'	6
'... the breakfast she went to school	2
'... she ate breakfast after then go to school'	2
'... she breakfast ate and went to school'	1
'... ate breakfast then she went to school'	1
'... breakfast I went to school'	1
'... she ate breakfast they say went to school'	1

Ap.148.

c) attempts involving confusion
over order 11

'... she went to school ate
breakfast' 3

'... she went to school Sita ate
breakfast' 3

'... he was then she went to school' 2

'... the she went to school Sita ate
breakfast' 1

'... the breakfast the she had went
to school' 1

'... Sita then she tomorrow went to
school' 1

d) failures 2

'... she is beautiful temple ever
seen' 1

'... he was most beautiful temple' 1

8. i. number of attempts:

attempts 20

quoted complete 19

no attempt 49

ii. classification of attempts:

a) correct ('... such a beautiful temple' 2

b) good attempt

'... that beautiful temple' 5 3

'... ever beautiful temple' 1

'... the temple it is most beautiful' 1

c) 'excerpt' ('... the most beautiful
temple') 4

Ap.149.

d) 'rearrangements'

'... he was most beautiful temple he had ever seen'	3
'... she was the most beautiful temple ever seen'	3
'... was temple he had ever seen'	2
'... It was the most beautiful temple'	2
'... she was most beautiful temple'	1

9. i. number of attempts:

attempts	32
sentence quoted unchanged	8
no response	48

ii. classification of attempts:

a) correct ('... Lakshmi went to school she ate breakfast')	4
b) good attempt	14
'... ate breakfast the she went to school'	7
'... then she went to school Lakshmi ate breakfast'	3
'... she is ate breakfast before go to school'	2
'... take breakfast after she went to school'	1
'... she went to school breakfast'	1
c) wrong order	11
'... Lakshmi ate breakfast she went to school'	7
'... she his breakfast Lakshmi went to school'	3
'... she go to school then she breakfast ate'	1

Ap.150.

d) weak attempts

3

'... then she went to school at
breakfast'

2

'... she ate breakfast they say went
to school'

1

10. i. number of attempts:

attempts

5

quoted unchanged

30

no attempt

53

ii. attempts:

'... such crowded buses'

1

'... such of buses as crowded as ours'

1

'... crowded ours is buses'

3

APPENDIX 16: Vocabulary test A

Say what the words below mean. You may use either English or Kannada

1. Gentle
2. Find
3. Remain
4. Helpless
5. Crowd
6. Rags
7. Bride
8. Difficult
9. Warn
10. Return

Answer pattern (N = 88)

1. (Gentle	0)	intelligent	33	cleverness	5
a good man	3	famous	2	to show off	1
men	6	to scold	1	waves	2
no response	30	indecipherable	5		
2. Find	13	to rejoice	19	rejoicing	7
to believe	6	to remain	5	find out	2

Ap.152.

to achieve	1	mark	8	to like	3
friend	2	no response	10	indecipherable	12
3. (Remain	0)	to return	11	to go back	9
to come back	10	returning	9	to go	1
to understand	8	take out	6	Raman	3
rain	2	brain	3	to try again	1
hurry	3	study/read	1	indecipherable	9
no response	12				
4. helpless	4	helplessness	5	weak	2
not to help	9	not helping	6	to help	25
helpers	1	to be helpful	4	to agree	3
good place	1	clever man	4	please	2
indecipherable	14	no response	8		
5. Crowd	55	cows	8	cloud	5
crows	2	crane	1	angry	4
secret	4	indecipherable	5	no response	4
6. (Rags	0)	beg	19	beggars	5
tailor	1	since	1	enjoy	1
no response	21	indecipherable	40		
7. Bride	3	marriage	20	swami	1
eagerly	2	indecipherable	45	no response	17
8. (difficult	0)	secret	18	mad	2
understanding	2	in the brain	1	write it	3
English	1	indecipherable	25	no response	36
9. (warn	0)	danger	5	accident	3
turn	20	born	3	called	1
hour	1	indecipherable	29	no response	26

Ap.153.

10. (Return)	0	sell	8	back	5
request	15	school	1	time	1
no response	23	indecipherable	35		

APPENDIX 17: Vocabulary Test B

Say what the words below mean. You may use either English or Kannada

1. Dispute
2. Pleased
3. Rare
4. Gift
5. Terror

Answer Pattern (N= 88)

1. Dispute	9	difference	10	problem	10
divide	10	to end quarrel	4	quarrel	2
distance	9	judgment	12	to make me try	1
belief	1	rotate	1	honour	1
praise	1	completely	1	available	1
to give	1	to get	4	cleanliness	4
to lie	1	indecipherable	6	no response	2
2. pleased	0	please	3	kindness	10
to be kind	3	kindly	19	praise	10
place	16	belief	17	telling sympathetically	1
head	4	appear	1	with authority	1
indecipherable	1	no response	2		
3. rare	59	roar	1	rain	2
rage	2	pillar	7	a lot	3
too much	1	belief	2	indecipherable	3
no response	8				

Ap.155.

4.	gift	69	gave	1	get	7
	lift	2	fetch	1	thing which is brought	1
	no response	6	indecipherable	1		
5.	terror	32	live	23	shiver	10
	remain	5	argue	1	no response	17

APPENDIX 18: A 'heuristic' test

(NB instructions, in Kannada throughout the test, are here given in English)

Part 1 - ranking test:

Below are six groups of words. There are four words in each group. You have to underline the one word in each group which is different from the others.

- | | | |
|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 1. cow | 2. rice | 3. listen |
| horse | bread | smell |
| cart | wheat | touch |
| donkey | ragi | quarrel |
| 4. clever | 5. people | 6. window |
| foolish | city | table |
| tall | town | bed |
| kind | village | chair |

In each of the next six items, you have to underline the word or phrase in the brackets which best completes the sentence.

7. When I reached the cricket ground, the match (will finish / finishes / has finished / had finished).
8. She looks (as if / whether / although / how) she is very tired.
9. William Shakespeare, author of "A Midsummer Night's Dream", was a famous (expert / inventor / dramatist / pilgrim)
10. The 'Deccan Herald' contains news, and also many (exploits / specialities / trinkets / advertisements) for shops and hotels.

Ap.157.

11. How I wish I could (mutter / accompany / torture /
glitter) you on your trip to Delhi!
12. Look at the bus. It is very slow, but it is climbing
the hill road (gradually / hastily / occasionally /
regularly)

Part 2 - Open-book comprehension test:

All the questions in this section are based on 'The Cunning Man', a lesson in your non-detailed reader.

Use your non-detailed reader to help you to answer the next ten questions:

13. Who was 'the cunning man'?
.....
14. How did he show his cunning?
.....
15. Why was Gundappa not a good school teacher?
.....
16. When did the villagers learn the truth about their
schoolteacher?
.....
17. Why did Gundappa want revenge on the Patel?
.....
18. Why was Gundappa not happy with life in the temple?
.....
19. What did Gundappa do to Ranga's ass?
.....
20. Why did Ranga think that the Patel would know him?
.....
21. Why did the Patel not recognise the gunny bag?
.....
22. Why did Ranga beat the ass all the way home?
.....

In the next seven items, you have to give the meaning, in either English or Kannada, of the words given.

23. Cunning.....
24. Innocent
25. Curious
26. Wandering
27. Eatables
28. I am crazy about films
29. They dragged him to the hospital

Part 3 - structure and vocabulary items:

30. Both my pencils are sharp. How many pencils do I have?
31. Ramu has not got many books. Mohan has a few books.
Babu has a lot of books. Who has the most?
32. Keerappa has more money than Balaji. Kuppaji has more money than Keerappa. Who is the richest?.....
33. The monkey is very tired. The monkey is in a hurry.
The monkey is up a tree. The monkey is thinking about his supper. Where is the monkey?
34. The man sitting next to Sheela is wearing a hat. Who is wearing the hat?

35. Seeta has three tomatoes and a mango in her basket.

Her mother takes the tomatoes to make dinner. Seeta
eats the mango.

1. How many tomatoes did Seeta's mother take?
2. How many mangoes did Seeta eat?
3. What is there in the basket now?

Part 4 - 'Comprehension'

To answer these four questions, you have to look at what the
four people, Krishna, Rajan, Venu and Mohan said, and see which
of them best fits as an answer to the question.

The teacher told the children that they were not going to do
lessons; instead, they were going to see the chief minister
open a new fire station.

Krishna said: Oh good! No lessons today!

Rajan said : I don't want to go. I'd rather go
swimming.

Venu said : Will we be home in time for tea?

Mohan said : I have to see the dentist today.

36. Who couldn't go?
37. Who was pleased?
38. Who didn't want to be late getting home?
39. Who wanted to do something else?

Answer PatternPart 1 - ranking test

i. pattern of responses:

top half n = 49

bottom half n = 49

Item	1	2	3	4	nons.	n/r	1	2	3	4	nons.	n/r
1	1	4	(35)	5	4	0	6	9	(12)	5	11	6
2	3	(15)	17	10	3	1	8	(8)	13	5	10	5
3	5	7	2	(29)	5	1	7	9	6	(12)	11	4
4	3	5	(22)	12	5	2	10	4	(4)	12	13	6
5	(34)	4	2	4	4	1	(10)	5	6	10	14	4
6	(25)	6	9	5	3	1	(7)	13	8	6	11	4
7	13	6	8	(18)	1	3	18	7	14	(6)	0	4
8	(18)	14	9	6	1	1	(2)	26	9	7	5	0
9	6	4	(37)	2	0	0	4	18	(19)	7	0	1
10	3	4	4	(37)	1	0	8	12	12	(16)	0	1
11	2	(36)	5	5	1	0	7	(14)	10	15	1	2
12	(19)	3	11	15	0	1	(6)	10	23	8	1	1

ii. totals and percentages

totals n = 98

percentages

Item	1	2	3	4	nons	n/r	1	2	3	4	nons	n/r
1	7	13	(47)	10	15	6	7.1	13.3	(48.0)	10.2	15.3	6.1
2	11	(23)	30	15	13	6	11.2	(23.5)	30.6	15.3	13.3	6.1
3	12	16	8	(41)	16	5	12.2	16.3	8.2	(41.8)	16.3	5.1
4	13	9	(26)	24	18	8	13.3	9.2	(26.5)	24.5	18.4	8.2
5	(44)	9	8	14	18	5	(44.9)	9.2	8.2	14.3	18.4	5.1
6	(32)	19	17	11	14	5	(32.6)	19.4	17.3	11.2	14.3	5.1

Item	1	2	3	4	nons.	n/r	1	2	3	4	nons.	n/r
7	31	13	22	(24)	1	7	31.6	13.3	22.4	(24.5)	1.0	7.1
8	(20)	40	18	13	6	1	(20.4)	40.8	18.4	13.3	6.1	1.0
9	10	22	(56)	9	0	1	10.2	22.4	(57.1)	9.2	0	1.0
10	11	16	16	(53)	1	1	11.2	16.3	16.3	(54.1)	1.0	1.0
11	9	(50)	15	20	2	2	9.2	(51.0)	15.3	20.4	2.0	2.0
12	(25)	13	34	23	1	2	(25.5)	13.3	34.7	23.5	1.0	2.0

iii. differences and differences in proportions

Item	1	2	3	4	nons.	n/r	1	2	3	4	nons	n/r
1	-5	-5	(23)	0	-7	-6	-.102	-.102	(.449)	0	-.143	-.122
2	-5	(7)	4	5	-7	-4	-.102	(.143)	.082	.102	-.143	-.082
3	-2	-2	-4	(17)	-6	-3	-.041	-.041	-.082	(.347)	-.122	-.061
4	-7	1	(18)	0	-8	-4	-.143	.02	(.367)	0	-.163	-.082
5	(24)	-1	-4	-6	-10	-3	(.49)	-.02	-.082	-.122	-.204	-.061
6	(18)	-7	1	-1	-8	-3	(.367)	-.143	.02	-.02	-.163	-.061
7	-5	-1	-6	(12)	1	-1	-.102	-.02	-.122	(.245)	.02	-.02
8	(16)	-12	0	-1	-4	1	(.326)	-.245	0	-.02	-.082	.02
9	2	-14	(18)	-5	0	-1	.041	-.286	(.367)	-.102	0	-.02
10	-5	-8	-8	(21)	1	-1	-.102	-.163	-.163	(.428)	.02	-.02
11	-5	(22)	-5	-10	0	-2	-.102	(.449)	-.102	-.204	0	-.04
12	(13)	-7	-12	-7	-1	0	(.265)	-.143	-.245	.143	-.02	0

Part 2A - Open-book comprehensionItem Analysis

Item	Top half n = 49			Bottom half			Tot	Diff.	FV	E ₁₂
	C	At.	N	C	At	N				
13	41	8	-	29	20	-	70	12	71.4	.245
14	4	14	31	0	20	29	4	4	4.1	.082
15	32	17	-	7	24	18	39	25	39.8	.510
16	11	24	14	0	31	18	11	11	11.2	.224
17	1	24	24	1	29	19	2	0	2.0	.000
18	-	21	28	2	28	19	2	-2	2.0	-.041
19	2	22	25	-	29	20	2	2	2.0	.041
20	2	19	28	-	31	18	2	2	2.0	.041
21	1	20	28	1	28	20	2	0	2.0	.000
22	4	25	20	-	25	24	4	4	4.1	.082
Tot.	98	194	198	40	265	185				

C - correct At - any other attempt N - nonsense or no response

Tot - total correct Diff - difference between correct in top
and bottom halvesFV - facility value E₁₂ - difference between proportions correct
in top and bottom halves.

ii. Analysis of attempts, other than correct answers

<u>Item</u>	<u>Attempt</u>	<u>location</u>	<u>top</u> <u>half</u>	<u>bottom</u> <u>half</u>
13	The village accountant	n.q.	1	
	the c - m- was the son of a village accountant	n.q.	6	
	Gundappa was son of a village accountant	n.q.		3
	cunning man was a village accountant	n.q.		2
	There lived a village accountant he was a c- m-	n.q.		1
	Long ago there lived a village accountant in Torvi pls1			2
	Long ago there livedby name Gundappa	pls1(1+)	1	
	Gundappa was a clever boy	pls3		1
	Gundappa was a clever ... in his studies	pls3		4
	Gundappa was a clever ... to teach	pls3(1+)		1
	this went on for years ... fat young man	pls7		3
	Gundappa grew into a short fat young man	pls7		2
	can an ass ever be turned into a man?	p20s3		1
14	a woman show his cunning	n.q.	1	
	could not read and write therefore show cunning	n.q.	1	
	there lived a village accountant ... by name Gundappa	pls1(1+.)		1
	Gundappa was a clever boy	pls3	2	
	Gundappa was a clever boy ... in his studies	pls3	8	4

<u>Item</u>	<u>Attempt</u>	<u>location</u>	<u>top¹</u>	<u>bottom¹</u>
	Gundappa never took interest in his studies	pls3		2
	Gundappa was either eating	pls6		1
	Gundappa was either eating or playing	pls6	1	
	Gundappa grew into a short fat young man	pls7		1
	One day his father called him and said,	p2s1		1
	One day his father called him and said, 'Gundappa'	p2s1		2
	The little money he had ... livelihood	p3s3(1+)		1
	He decided to do ... wanted one badly because	p3s5(1+)		1
	The villagers wanted one badly because ... their place	p3s8		1
	Gundappa was able to get an old building	p5s1		1
	As you know, Gundappa ... the children then?	p6s1(1+)		1
	How did he teach the children then?	p6s2		1
	They were very happy with their new teacher and	p8s3		1
	the children at school never guessed that their teacher	p9s1		1
	one day a woman came to the school ... her hand	n.q.	1	
15	Gundappa did not know how good school teach ok	n.q.	1	
	Gundappa was a very fine	n.q.		2
	He was not good at ... a life of ease	p2s7(1+)		2
	He decided to do any work to earn his livelihood	p3s5	1	

<u>Item</u>	<u>Attempt</u>	<u>location</u>	<u>top¹</u>	<u>bottom¹</u>
	Gundappa went to Shivalli and told the villagers	p4s1	1	
	The parents started ... taught by Gundappa	p5s5	1	
	Very soon the school was full of children	p5s6		1
	... Gundappa did not know ... teach the children	p6s1(1+)	7	
	The school went on ... or other at school	p8s1(1+)		2
	... at school. They were ... new teacher	p8s2		1
	They were very happy ... a wise man	p8s3	3	5
	The children at school never guessed	p9s1	3	
	The children at school never guessed that their teacher	p9s1		2
	The children at school ... could not read and write	p9s1		2
	They spent their time ... teaching one another	p9s2		1
	One day Gundappa ... to do various things	p10s1		3
	In the beginning the woman ... of the teacher	p12s1		1
	Gundappa was a your son is all right	p13s9		1
	Gundappa was ready to leave that place for good	p34s2		1
16	He went from village ... earn his livelihood	p3s1(1+)		1
	He decided to do any work to earn his livelihood	p3s5	2	
	He came to hear ... attended a school	p3s6(1+)		1

Ap.167.

<u>Item</u>	<u>Attempt</u>	<u>location</u>	<u>top¹</u>	<u>bottom¹</u>
	The villagers wanted ... because their children	p3s8		2
	The villagers wanted ... that was three miles away	p3s8	2	1
	The very next day ... open a school there	p4s1		1
	... Gundappa went to Shivalli ... open a school there	p4s1	1	2
	... the villagers that he wanted to open a school there	p4s1		1
	... the villagers that ... welcomed the idea	p4s1(1+)		2
	... villagers he arranged ... the school open	p5s3(1+)		1
	Gundappa did not know ... could he teach	p6s1(1+)		1
	The school went on ... or other at school	p8s1(1+)	4	4
	The villagers always found ... children doing	p8s2		1
	The villagers always found ... or other at school	p8s2	2	2
	They were very happy ... a wise man	p8s3	1	2
	children doing something ... were very happy	p8s2		1
	The children at school ... read and write	p9s1	3	1
	A woman came in with a letter in her hand	p10s2	4	
	Gundappa never imagined ... come so soon	p11s1		1

<u>Item</u>	<u>Attempt</u>	<u>location</u>	<u>top¹</u>	<u>bottom¹</u>
	In no time this noise ... to the school	p12s5	1	1
	What is going on ... are you crying	p13s1(1+))	1	
	He took the letter from the teacher and read it	p13s8	1	
	leave the village at once ... your face again	p14s9	2	
	Gundappa realised that ... stay in the village	p15s1		1
	Gundappa realised that the villagers were angry	p15s1		1
	villagers were angry ... could not stay	p15s1		1
	The Patel was so busy ... the Panchayat Hall	p28s1		1
	Gundappa went into the ... things into a bag	p35s1		1
17	But for the Patel. Gundappa want revenge on the Patel	n.q.	1	
	Gundappa want revenge to money the Patel	n.q.	1	
	Patel want revenge on the Gundappa	n.q.	1	
	did not eat the food there got revenge on the Patel	n.q.	1	
	In this way Gundappa took revenge on the Patel	n.q.		1
	How did Gundappa take revenge on the Patel?	qn.		1
	Next day Gundappa went to Shivalli	p4s1		1

Ap.169.

<u>Item</u>	<u>Attempt</u>	<u>location</u>	<u>top¹</u>	<u>bottom¹</u>
	The villagers welcomed the idea. The young Patel	p4s2(1+)		1
	The young Patel ... Gundappa of all help	p4s3	2	1
	Gundappa would say to one child	p7s1		1
	He took it in his right hand ... and he started weeping	pl1s5(1+)	1	
	What is going on here? asked the Patel	pl3s1(1+)		2
	Why are you crying? asked the Patel	pl3s2		2
	The woman stopped crying for a while	pl3s3	1	
	Gundappa was still sobbing ... how to read and write	pl4s2	1	1
	I ... I ... I do not know ... how to read and write	pl4s2	1	
	The Patel was taken aback on hearing it	pl4s3		1
	He saw a tank and a small temple	pl5s4	1	
	Men and women came to the temple. They saw a stranger there	pl5s8(1+)	1	
	As the night grew darker Gundappa	pl6s1		1
	Gundappa waited patiently for an opportunity	pl7s9		1
	Gundappa waited ... opportunity of taking revenge	pl7s9		1
	Gundappa waited ... taking revenge on the Patel	pl7s9	7	6

<u>Item</u>	<u>Attempt</u>	<u>location</u>	<u>top $\frac{1}{2}$</u>	<u>bottom $\frac{1}{2}$</u>
	I was happy in my own ... happier at Shivalli	p18s3(1+)		1
	He said, 'have you ... can an ass ever?'	p20s2(1+)		1
	He had never forgotten	p21s2	1	
	a definite plan of taking ... came to his mind	p21s3	1	
	All right, he said, ... case is a special one	p21s5	1	
	The Patel was so busy that he did not see Ranga	p28s1		1
	The Patel was so busy ... Ranga getting into the Hall	p28s1	1	4
	He smiled and waved his hand to the Patel	p28s4		1
18	Gundappa not with satisfied life in the temple?	qn.	1	
	The villagers put some prasadam in front of Gundappa	n.q.	1	
	Gundappa realised that ... to stay in the village	p15s1	1	
	He saw a tank and a small temple near	p15s4	1	3
	Men and women came to the temple	p15s8	4	
	He had a good sleep ... in the same place also	p16s3	1	1
	One day Gundappa was ... in his usual place in the temple	p18s1	5	3
	Gundappa happy in his usual place in the temple	p18s1		1
	There was no-one ... said to himself	p18s2(1+)		1

Ap.171.

<u>Item</u>	<u>Attempt</u>	<u>location</u>	<u>top</u> $\frac{1}{2}$	<u>bottom</u> $\frac{1}{2}$
	No-one else there he said to himself	p18s2(1+)		1
	Just then the village washerman ... passing with his ass	p19s1	1	1
	Ranga happened to be passing with his ass	p19s1		1
	Gundappa was surprised at this strange request	p20s1	1	1
	He said, 'Have you ... turned into a man?'	p20s2(1+)	1	2
	In rage and pain ... and told Gundappa	p32s1		1
	In rage and pain ... and told Gundappa what had happened	p32s1		1
	That night Gundappa ... tree near the temple	p34s1	2	2
	By the time Ranga came to the temple	p34s2	1	
	Gundappa went into the temple ... into a bag	p35s1	1	3
	Gundappa went into the temple ... out of the village	p35s1(1+)		1
	He stepped out of the village temple	p35s3		5
19	He changed it into a man	n.q.	3	
	He held it in his right hand ... started weeping	p11s3(1+)		1
	You are an ass, not a man	p14s8		1
	There was no-one ... said to himself	p18s2(1+)		1
	To earn some money I must ... of this ass	p18s7	2	

Ap.172.

<u>Item</u>	<u>Attempt</u>	<u>location</u>	<u>top</u> ¹ ₂	<u>bottom</u> ¹ ₂
	Just then the village ... with his ass	p19s1		2
	Just then the village ... very near	p19s1		1
	just then the village ... happened	p19s1		1
	just then the village Ranga	p19s1		1
	Ranga happened to be very near the temple with his ass	p19s1	2	3
	I don't have any children ... into a man for me	p19s4(1+)	1	
	But I have a young ass	p19s5		1
	I know it can be done by you, replied Ranga	p20s4		1
	replied Ranga ... I heard you say so	p20s4(1+)		1
	After Ranga left ... in a mango grove	p24s1	1	2
	After Ranga left ... in a mango	p24s1		1
	Gundappa hid the ass in a mango grove	p24s1	2	
	Early in the morning ... full of hopes	p24s2	1	1
	I have changed your ass into a great man	p24s4	1	
	When Ranga was about ... give me the money	p26s1	1	
	So saying he ran ... out for Shivalli	p26s3(1+)	1	
19	... asked the Patel ... hurt, and said,	p30s1(1+)	1	

Ap.173.

<u>Item</u>	<u>Attempt</u>	<u>location</u>	<u>top¹</u>	<u>bottom ¹/₂</u>
	see how ungrateful he is!	p31s5	2	
	Here are Rs500	p32s3		1
	come here early tomorrow ... find your ass	p33s4		1
	That night Gundappa brought back Ranga's ass	p34s1		2
	Gundappa was ready to leave ... recognised his ass	p34s2	2	2
	Gundappa was ready to leave ... he asked the ass	p34s2(1+)		2
	Ranga recognised his ass at once	p34s3	2	2
20	Gundappa was able to get an old building	p5s1		1
	Holding it before Gundappa, she said, 'my son	p10s3		1
	The Patel was taken aback on hearing it	p14s3	1	
	He could not forget ... Shivalli had called him	p17s6	2	
	Patel had called him	p17s6		1
	He had a strong ... in his own coin	p17s7		2
	Just then the village ... with his ass	p19s1		1
	I know it can ... replied Ranga	p20s4		1
	replied Ranga only a few minutes ago	p20s4		1
	... secret between you and me ... to these conditions	p22s4(1+)		1
	Ranga? I have changed ... now the Patel	p24s3(1+)		1

Ap.174.

<u>Item</u>	<u>Attempt</u>	<u>location</u>	<u>top¹</u>	<u>bottom¹</u>
20	He is now the Patel of Shivalli	p24s5	3	
	He is now ... and meet him	p24s5(1+)		2
	Ranga was extremely happy at the good news	p25s1		1
	Ranga was about to leave ... give me the money	p26s1	1	
	Ranga said to himself, ... into a clever man	p27s3(1+)	2	
	The Patel was so busy ... into the Panchayat Hall	p28s1	4	1
	The Patel was so busy ... seen by him	p28s1(1+)		1
	But Ranga wanted to be seen by him	p28s2		1
	He smiled and waved his hand to the Patel	p28s4		1
	He took out the Gunny Bag, ... whenever he looked up	p28s7		1
	Ranga thought that the Patel ... and felt pleased	p29s3		1
	Who are you? asked the Patel	p30s1		1
	Ranga felt a little hurt, and said,	p30s2	1	1
	Look at this attentively ... who I am	p30s6(1+)	1	
	Patel, Ranga said, ... only a week ago	p30s10	1	
	Ranga resisted it ... too strong for him	p31s2	1	2
	But some mischievous ... stones at him	p31s9	1	
	That night Gundappa brought back Ranga's ass	p34s1		2
	By the time Ranga came to the temple	p34s2		2

<u>Item</u>	<u>Attempt</u>	<u>location</u>	<u>top¹</u>	<u>bottom¹</u>
20	Gundappa went into the temple ... things into a bag	p35s1		1
	with the bag in his hand, and a smile on his face	p35s3	1	3
21	He saw the gunny bag, and said, 'are you crazy'	n.q.	1	
	with the help of the villagers, he arranged everything	p5s3		1
	'What is going on here?' asked the Patel	p13s1	1	
	... some money and take revenge on the Patel	p17s9		1
	Swamiji, I don't have ... man for me	p19s4(1+)	2	
	Will he be able ... when I meet	p24s2	3	
	Ranga was extremely happy ... me as his master	p25s1(1+)		1
	Ranga was extremely happy at the good news	p25s1		2
	I think he will ... won't forget the bag	p25s3(1+)		1
	Gundappa but to be quite sure ... take the gunny bag	p25s3		1
	you had better take the ... to feed him	p25s3		1
	he might have forgotten ... can't forget the bag	p25s4	1	1
	The Patel did not take ... gunny bag, waved it and	p28s5(1+)		1
	He took out the gunny bag ... he looked up	p28s7	2	
	he took out the bag	p28s7		1
	He became very curious and sent for the man	p29s2	1	

<u>Item</u>	<u>Attempt</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>top¹</u>	<u>bottom¹</u>
21	Ranga thought that the Patel ... and felt pleased	p29s3	1	1
	Then he held out ... look at this attentively	p30s6	2	
	asked the Patel angrily. This is a gunny bag	p30s8		1
	this is a gunny bag	p30s8		1
	Looking at the Patel, Ranga said, ... a week ago	p30s10	2	1
	Looking at the Patel ... the very gunny bag	p30s10		3
	This is the very gunny bag ... a week ago	p30s10	4	3
	the Patel, Ranga said, 'This is the very gunny bag'	p30s10		1
	Ranga recognised his ass at once	p34s2		2
	Ranga recognised his ass ... he asked the ass	p34s2(1+)		2
	Gundappa went into the temple ... into a bag	p35s1		2
22	he realised ... he would soon starve	p3s4		1
	Gundappa waited patiently ... revenge on the Patel	p17s9	1	
	An ass cannot earn	p18s6		1
	as soon as I return ... give you money	p26s2		1
	he has changed my ass into a clever man	p27s4		1
	the Patel was so busy he did not see	p28s1		1
	Ranga getting into the Panchayat Hall	p28s1	4	

Part 2B - word knowledge from the text

i. item analysis

Item	<u>Top half</u>			<u>Bottom half</u>			Tot	Diff	FV	E ₁₂
	C	At	N	C	At	N				
23	36	13	0	17	32	0	53	19	54.1	.388
24	2	38	9	0	31	18	2	2	2	.041
25	0	36	13	0	21	0	0	0	0	0
26	19	22	8	4	39	6	23	15	23.5	.306
27	31	15	3	5	19	25	36	26	36.7	.531
28	11	19	19	1	22	26	12	10	12.2	.204
29	12	18	19	0	11	38	12	12	12.2	.245

ii. analysis of 'attempts'

Item 23

group 1 - form correct; semantically close: total - 6

'good' (2); 'fat' (1); 'illiterate' (1); 'clever' (1);

'unfaithful' (1)

group 2 - form not correct; semantically close: total - 34

fool (7); idiot (5); good man (3); good boy (3); miser (2);

thief (1); handsome man (1); worker (1); to deceive (8);

cleverness (1); trick (1); fun (1)

group 3 - other: total - 5

to live (1); in the long run (1); owner of the house (2); our (1)

Item 24

group 1 - form correct; semantically related: total - 13

wise (9); good (3); cruel (1)

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group 2 - form not correct; semantically related: total - 25
opinion (11); calculation (7); attention (6); justice (1)

group 3 - superficially similar: total - 5
important (4); insects (1)

group 4 - other words in test: total - 7
wonder (4); wander (3)

group 5 - other: total - 19
to go/be near (7); to find out afresh (7); under the seed (2);
to be silent (1); things (1)

Item 25

group 1 - form correct; semantically related: total - 21
cruel (8); good (6); strong (3); strange (1); holy (1);
angry (1); horrible (1)

group 2 - form wrong; semantically related: total - 6
bad man (2); good nature (1); a man without wisdom (1); cruelty (1);
anger bring (0)

group 3 - other items from the test: total - 12
wander (5); eatables (2); vegetables (1); to make someone eat (1);
wonder (1); innocent (1); to see a film (1)

group 4 - total - 18
wealth (4); favour (3); a thing (2); to make a path (2);
education (1); change (1); penance (1); convenient place (1);
their (1); count properly (1); live (1)

Item 26

group 1 - words of similar shape - total - 21
wonderful (7); wonder (14)

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group 2 - other: total - 40

to be well (7); under the seed (4); beautiful (3); under the table (3); words (2); ask/listen (1); attention (1); to be good (1); with pride (1); wise (1); to be happy (1); opinion (1); to kill (1); in anger (1); not wanted (1); things (2); to turn blue (1); holy (2); to give (1); work/worker (1); ugly (1); vegetable (3)

Item 27

group 1 - form correct; semantically close: total - 16
fruit (3); vegetables (13)

group 2 - form not correct; semantically close: total - 8
to eat (4); eating (2); eating fruits (1); dining place (1)

group 3 - other: total - 10

conveniently (2); convenience (2); equal (1); to buy tickets (1); gods (1); things (1); big buildings (1); under the bench (1)

Item 28

group 1 - associated with 'crazy' and/or 'films': total - 39
lazy film (13); I went mad (7); lazy (3); mad (2); I see good films (2); If I had been mad, I wouldn't have seen the movie (2); Occasionally I see movies (1); I would like to see films (1); I went to a movie (1); I don't see bad films (1); I don't like films (1); I went mad looking at nuts (1); I am lazy to see films (1); I see only good films (1); I see movies of madmen (1); I see a lot of movies (1);

group 2 - other: total - 2
meals (1); listen (1)

Item 29

group 1 - associated with 'hospital'; total - 24
Dangerous hospital (12); I went to hospital (3); put a madman

Ap.180.

in hospital (1); We take our mother to hospital (1); I must go to the hospital (1); They are in the hospital (1); since I'm going to hospital every day, I'll get well soon (1); Hospital is good (1); they take him to hospital (1); I go to the hospital today (1); he took it to the hospital (1);

group 2 - other: total - 6

wealth (4); naughty (1); tiresome (1);

Part 3 - structure and vocabulary items

i. frequencies

item	top half			nons n/r		bottom half			nons/nr	
30	2	6	(14)	9	9	0	2	(6)	16	22
31	12	4	(28)	2	3	6	5	(10)	13	15
32	11	5	(24)	3	6	11	5	(7)	9	17
33	1	1	(35)	6	5	4	1	(13)	11	15
34	(11)	31		1	6	(6)	13		13	17

	top	bottom
35a x three	10	7
quote first sentence	1	5
quote second sentence	17	8
quote third sentence	0	4
mango in her basket	7	3
dinner	1	2
the tomatoes	7	5
basket	2	5
nonsense + non response	4	10
35b x one	3	1
three	13	6
quote first sentence	3	7
quote second sentence	2	4

item 35b (contd)

	<u>top</u>	<u>bottom</u>
quote third sentence	15	8
dinner sheela eats the mango	1	1
basket	1	2
full basket	4	1
the mangoes		2
nonsense and non response	7	17
35c x nothing	0	0
tomatoes and mango	4	3
quote sentence one	12	10
quote sentence two	1	3
quote sentence three	7	4
mango	9	10
tomatoes	7	3
tomatoes and a mango in her basket	3	2
a mango in her basket	3	1
in her basket	2	2
nonsense and non response	1	11

ii. facility value and discrimination

	<u>tot.</u>	<u>diff.</u>	<u>F.V.</u>	<u>Disc.</u> (E_{12})
30	20	8	20.4	.163
31	38	18	38.8	.367
32	31	17	31.6	.347
33	48	22	49	.449
34	17	5	17.3	.102
35a	17	3	17.3	.061
35b	4	2	4.1	.041
35c	0	0	0	0

part 4 - 'comprehension'

i. frequencies

item	K	R	V	M	nons	n/r	K	R	V	M	non	n/r
36	6	26	0	(4)	6	7	5	19	6	(1)	6	12
37	(13)	13	5	6	4	8	(7)	14	7	3	6	12
38	2	1	(25)	14	4	3	10	4	(9)	7	7	12
39	13	(10)	6	13	4	3	11	(3)	10	7	6	12

ii. facility value and discrimination

<u>item</u>	<u>tot</u>	<u>diff.</u>	<u>F.V.</u>	<u>Disc</u> (E_{12})
36	5	3	5.1	.061
37	20	6	20.4	.122
38	34	16	34.7	.326
39	13	7	13.3	.143

Appendix 19

READING TEXT - SINBAD

We voyaged for many months, stopping at islands to barter our goods. One day, the winds guided our ships to an uninhabited island. My companions and I went ashore, surprised by the abundance of fruit and water on the land. The men wandered around, enjoying the delights of the place. I strolled on, leaving the others behind. Presently I rested under a shady tree, had my meal, and fell asleep by a murmuring brook.

1. Did the men sell their goods for money? Or do something else?

What did they do? What tells you?

(If no response, try "What did they do with their goods?

What does that word mean?")

- 1a. Why did the travellers stop at islands?

- a. to sell goods and buy others
- b. to buy food
- c. to steal goods
- d. to exchange goods for other goods

How do you know? What word tells you?

- [illegible]

How do you know? (If no response, try "You need to make a guess. It doesn't tell you in so many words. Can you see anything that will help you guess?")

3. Did the travellers set out to visit the uninhabited island?

What tells you? (If no response, try "who decided they

would go there? Can you tell?")

4. One word tells you that the travellers did not expect to find so much food and water on the island? What word is it?

(If no response, try "When you see something you don't expect, How do you feel?")

5. What do you think the island was like? Was it

- a. dry and barren b. very mountainous
- c. very windy and wet d. covered with trees

(If no response, try "can you find anything that says whether it was dry? Did the men have to climb hills?" and so on)

6. What kind of plants did they find on the island? Were they

- a. bad ones like manchineel
- b. crops planted by the natives
- c. strange and foreign to the travellers
- d. useful ones like coconut and papaya

(If no response, try "Were they poisonous? Why weren't they crops?" and so on)

7. What part of the world do you think this might have happened in?

(If no response, try "What can we find out? Was it hot or cold? Wet or dry? Were there a lot of small islands, or one big mass of land? Do you know anywhere like that?")

8. The people described are most probably

- a. explorers b. pirates
- c. sailors in a navy d. merchants

9. Why did they not try to trade on the island? (If no response, try "What kind of people were there on the island?")

10. What kind of book does this passage come from? Is it

- a. an encyclopaedia
- b. an adventure story
- c. a geography book
- d. a history book

How can you tell?

11/12. "The men" (line 4). Find two other expressions for them.

13. What do you think happens next?

- a. The men have a rest, make a map and leave the island
- b. The men build a fort and start to grow crops
- c. Something dangerous or exciting happens to the narrator
- d. Something dangerous or exciting happens to the other men.

THE SULTAN AND THE COOK

There once lived in Malaysia a Sultan called Ali. He ruled over a rich and peaceful kingdom. -----, because he was a generous man, but they also feared him because of his hot temper. Anyone who offended him was sentenced to dreadful punishments.

He loved music, dancing and story-telling. ----- to enjoy the feasts at his palace, and join in the happy life of his court. His visitors enjoyed his hospitality, but feared his anger. Except during the periods of fasting, there was a great feast at the palace almost every night, with lots of guests. There were great dishes of rice, curry and fish, chicken and lamb, cooked in strange and delicious ways, and followed by sweets of all kinds.

----- for putting too much pepper in the soup when the Chinese Ambassador came to dinner. The Prime Minister had to find a new cook. After much searching, he heard about a man called Daoud, who worked for a rich merchant, and he asked the merchant to send him to the Palace. The merchant ----- "If you don't send him before evening", the Sultan said, "I shall have your ears cut off." The merchant didn't want to lose his ears, so he agreed to send Daoud. But he warned the Prime Minister about him, "-----, but there is one problem about him. Everybody in my house likes his food, but especially Daoud. I can't stop him eating the food he cooks." "-----?" the Prime Minister asked? "Of course," said the merchant. "I beat him and take away his pay." "-----, he will lose not his pay but his life."

So Daoud gathered up his pots and pans, his wife and children, and went

off to the Sultan's palace. He was proud to be cook to such a great man as Ali.

... For a time, everything went well. The Sultan was very pleased with Daoud's cooking, and praised it highly. Daoud was careful only to eat a little from each of the dishes he cooked. Then, one day, there was a very big feast for the King of Thailand. Daoud cooked a dish of fish the way they cook it in his home district of Penang. The smell of the dish made him think of the happy days of his youth...

... the King of Thailand was very pleased with the feast, and said as much to the Sultan. "But there's just one thing," he said. "In my country the fish all have tails, and the tails are very good to eat. Do the fish in your country have no tails?"

The Sultan was very angry, and sent the Prime Minister to fetch Daoud to explain. Daoud came in great fear, but kept his presence of mind. "It's simple, your Majesty," he said. "The fish I cooked were a very rare kind from the sea around Penang. I sent for them specially to delight the King. They always swim in a straight line, so they have no need of tails."

Ali was doubtful. "You didn't perhaps eat the tails yourself?" "I, my lord? I am a poor man. My food is but a handful of rice and a few chillis. I would never dare to eat food destined for the Sultan's table."

Daoud was sent back to the kitchen, and for the time being, nothing more was said. Then there came a feast for the Caliph of Baghdad. Daoud cooked roast lamb, in a rare and wonderful sauce, with all manner of sweet spices. It was a difficult dish to cook, and Daoud wanted to be sure that the balance of the spices was perfect ...

... When the Sultan saw that the lambs had no right legs, he was more angry than he had ever been before. All the people for a mile around were trembling, and the Royal Executioner was in attendance when Daoud was called to the Presence to explain. Daoud fell on his knees before Ali. "Your Majesty! Those were special sheep, from the Western Ghats of India. I searched long and hard to find them. The hills there are so steep that the sheep need only two legs. They lean against the hillside on their right side, and run with the other two legs." There was a silence. The Sultan was thinking. Daoud's cooking was so good that he could not bear to lose it; but as things were Daoud was eating half of it. Then, he began to shout. He shouted for half an hour, and at the end he said, "Very well, Daoud. As well as being a good cook, you seem to be a very fine story-teller. But let me have no more of these strange creatures. If you make me angry once more, I shall feed you to the Royal Tigers!"

For a while, all went well. The fish all had tails, the lambs all had four legs. But then again there was a very special feast, this time for the Princess that Ali hoped to marry. Daoud was told to cook the best dish he knew. He cooked roast crane, with honey and cashew nuts. When the dish was ready, Daoud smelt it. "It smells beautiful," he thought. "But perhaps I should just taste a bit, to make sure that the meat is really tender." ...

... In the dining room, the musicians played, and the Princess, her parents and the Sultan were all happy. A servant brought in the roast crane. There was a wing for the Princess, a wing for her

mother, and a leg for her father. But when the dish came to the Sultan, there was ... nothing.

The Sultan could not show his anger in front of the Princess, so he waited until the next morning before he summoned Daoud. "Thief!" he shouted, "Traitor! Starver of your Sultan! What have you to say before I have you cut into a thousand pieces?" "Your Majesty," said Daoud, "that bird was a crane. Cranes have only one leg."

"What!" roared the Sultan, "first, fishes with no tails, then lambs without right legs. Now you talk to me of one-legged birds! Prove it to me, or I shall have you boiled in your own pots!" "If your Majesty will only come to the window with me," Daoud said, "I shall prove it." ...

What did the Sultan see from the window?

What did he do to Daoud?